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THE PRINCIPLES OF EQUITY,

WITH AN

EPITOME OF THE EQUITY PRACTICE.

Baŭantyne Press Ballantyne, hanson and co. Edinburgh and london

THE

PRINCIPLES OF EQUITY,

INTENDED FOR

THE USE OF STUDENTS AND THE PROFESSION.

BY

EDMUND H. T. SNELL, of the middle temple, barrister-at-law.

Fifth Edition.

TO WHICH IS ADDED

AN EPITOME OF THE EQUITY PRACTICE.

Second Edition.

BY

ARCHIBALD BROWN,

M.A. EDIN. & OXON., AND B.C.L. OXON. OF THE MIDDLE TEMPLE, BARRISTER-AT-LAW.

LONDON:

STEVENS & HAYNES,

Law Publishers, BELL YARD, TEMPLE BAR.

1880.

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то

WILLIAM LLOYD BIRKBECK,

DOWNING PROFESSOR OF THE LAWS OF ENGLAND

IN THE UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRIDGE,

AND FORMERLY

READER IN EQUITY TO THE INNS OF COURT,

THIS FIFTH EDITION

OF

" Snell's Equity,"

TOGETHER WITH THIS SECOND EDITION

OF THE

"Practice in Equity,"

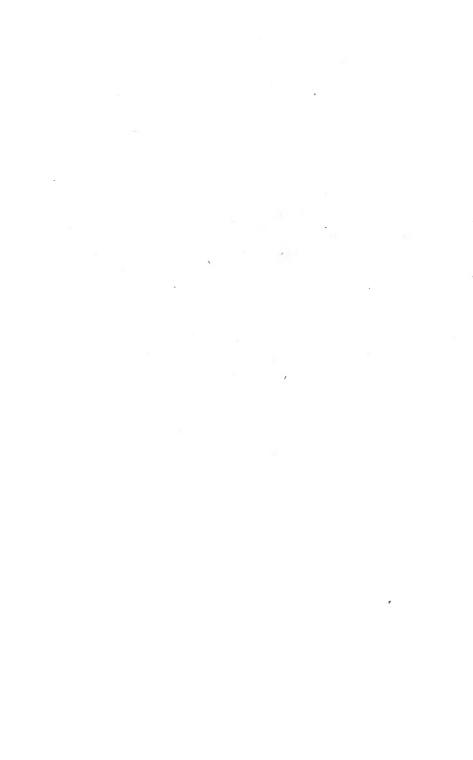
CONTINUES TO BE

RESPECTFULLY INSCRIBED,-

BY THE EDITOR,

WHO (LIKE THE AUTHOR) WAS

FORMERLY HIS MUCH ADMIRING PUPIL.



PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION.

The Author, in the course of his studies for the Bar, made so many notes on the Principles of Equity and the cases in support of them, not only from his own private reading, but from the Lectures of that able and distinguished master, Mr. Birkbeck, the Lecturer on Equity Jurisprudence, that it required but little trouble to recast and mould them into the form of a book. Venturing to think that the work may prove useful not only to the student but the practitioner, he ventures with diffidence to submit the result of his labours to the consideration of the profession.

5 Essex Court, Temple, January 1868.

•			
		*	

PREFACE TO THE FOURTH EDITION.

THE Author of the "Principles of Equity" being dead, and the Editor of the Second and Third Editions having also died, and a new edition being wanted, I have, at the Publishers' request, edited the Fourth Edition.

To the "Principles of Equity" I have added the "Practice in Equity."

As regards the "Principles of Equity," being Book I. of the present edition, these have already proved themselves to be the very guide the student wants, and I have been careful not to alter same in their general character; but I have corrected a great many minor deficiencies and errors in them, and have excluded from them certain ill-founded (although vulgarly accepted) prejudices, and have generally worked up the language and the contents of the book to the level of the new procedure introduced by the Judicature Acts, 1873-77, and to the present state of the law. All the numerous references to Story, Spence, and

Smith have been allowed to stand; but the quotations from these several authors have invariably been adapted, both in substance and in language, so as to give to the "Principles of Equity" a uniform and independent character of their own, and one (it is believed) of greater accuracy.

As regards the "Practice in Equity," being Book II. of the present edition, that is an experiment, suggested by the necessities which I have experienced in my own practice. The experiment must be allowed to speak for itself; its general character and its quality will be readily apparent upon inspection. Although the "Practice" is professedly confined to an action in the Chancery Division, it will be found to embrace (in fact) nearly the whole of the practice in the three Common Law Divisions also,—that being a consequence largely of the fusion of the different practices.

ARCHIBALD BROWN.

89 CHANCERY LANE, W.C.,
May 1878.

PREFACE TO THE FIFTH EDITION.

In this Fifth Edition, the "Principles of Equity" have been thoroughly revised, and the new decisions noted up. Some few statements that had crept into the Fourth Edition, and which were apparently erroneous, have been expressed more carefully in the present edition, and the student cannot now be misled thereby. Some paragraphs in the Fourth Edition have been shortened, and a few have been omitted, in order to make room for the new matter introduced into this Fifth Edition; but the size of the book is not materially enlarged.

The "Practice in Equity" has also been carefully revised, and the one or two errors therein have been corrected; and every new decision up to December 1879 inclusive in the Law Reports, and some few decisions in the other reports bearing upon the practice, together with the new orders and rules of November 1878 and of March 1879,

have been incorporated in their proper places. This practice has also been extended by means of additions (principally enclosed within square brackets), so as to be available for the Common Law practice as well,—but not for the Probate, Divorce, and Admiralty Division.

A. BROWN.

December 1879.

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REPORTS AND TEXT WRITERS,

WITH

ABBREVIATIONS.

Ad. & Ell.

Amb. Anst.

Atk.

Ball & B. B. & A.

B. & Ad.

Barn & Cress.

Beav. B. & S.

Bing. N. C.

Bl. Com. B. & P.

Brod. & Bing. Bro. C. C.

Bro. Law Dict.

Bro. P. C.

Ca. t. Talb. Cha. Ca.

Cha. Ca. Co. Lit.

Coop.

Cowp.

Cr. & Ph. Cro. Eliz.

Dan. Ch. Pr.

Dart's V. & P. De G. F. & Jo.

De G. F. & Jo. De G. & J.

De G. J. & S.

De G. M. & G.

Dixon on Partn.

Doug. Drew. Adolphus and Ellis.

Ambler. Anstruther.

Atkyns.
Ball and Beatty (Irish),

Barnewall and Alderson.
Barnewall and Adolphus.

Barnewall and Creswell.

Beavan.

Best and Smith. Bingham, New Cases.

Blackstone's Commentaries. Bosanquet and Puller.

Broderip and Bingham. Brown's Chancery Cases.

Brown's Law Dictionary and Institute.

Brown's Parliamentary Cases.

Cases tempore Talbot.
Cases in Chancery.
Coke upon Littleton.
Cooper (G), Chancery Cases.

Coote on Mortgages.

Cowper.

Craig and Phillips. Croke's Reports, vol. i.

Daniell's Chancery Practice, 5th ed. Dart's Vendors and Purchasers, 4th ed.

De Gex, Fisher, and Jones.

De Gex and Jones.

De Gex, Jones, and Smith.

De Gex, Macnaghten, and Gordon.

Dixon on Partnership.

Douglas.

Drewry.

XX REPORTS AND TEXT WRITERS, WITH ABBREVIATIONS.

Dr. & Walsh.	Drury and Walsh.
Dr. & War.	Drury and Warren.
Eden.	Eden's Chancery Cases.
Ell. Bl. & Ell.	Ellis, Blackburn, and Ellis.
Ell. & Black.	Ellis and Blackburn.
E. & A.	Error and Appeal (Upper Canadian).
Exch. Rep.	Exchequer Reports.
Fonbl.	
	Fonblanque on Equity.
Fry on Spec. Perf. Giff.	Fry on Specific Performance. Giffard.
Gilb. Us.	Gilbert on Uses.
Gr.	Grant (Upper Canadian).
Ha.	Hare.
Hayes' Intro.	Hayes' Introduction to Conveyancing.
H. & Tw.	Hall and Twells.
H. & M.	Hemming and Miller.
Holt, N. P.	Holt, Nisi Prius Cases.
H. L. Cas.	House of Lords' Cases.
John.	Johnson.
J. & H.	Johnson and Hemming.
J. & L.	Jones and Latouche (Irish).
Jac.	Jacob.
J. & W.	Jacob and Walker.
Jur. N. S.	Jurist, New Series.
K. & J.	Kay and Johnson.
Kay.	Kay.
Kee.	Keen.
L. J., N. S.	Law Journal, New Series.
L. R., Ch. App.	Law Reports, Chancery Appeal Cases.
L. R., Eq.	Law Reports, Equity Cases.
L. R., H. L.	Law Reports, House of Lords' Cases.
L. R., P. C.	Law Reports, Privy Council Cases.
L. R., Ch. D.	Law Reports, Chancery Division (comprising
_,,	Equity Cases and Chancery Appeal Cases
	since November 1875).
L. R., App. Ca.	Law Reports, Appellate Cases (comprising
11. 10., 11pp. Ca.	House of Lords and Privy Council Cases
	since November 1875).
L. R., Exch. Div.	since revember 10/5).
L. R., Exch. Div. L. R., C. P. Div.	Law Reports, the respective Common Law
L. R., Q. B. Div.	Divisions, commencing November 1875.
, ,	
Lew. on Tr.	Lewin on Trusts.
L. C.	White and Tudor's Leading Cases in Equity,
71 7 7	5th ed.
Lind. Part.	Lindley on Partnership, 3d ed.
L. T. N. S.	Law Times Reports, New Series.
M. & G.	Macnaghten and Gordon.
Mad. & G.	Maddock and Geldart.
Madd.	Maddock.
Mayne on Dam.	Mayne on Damages.
Mod.	Modern Reports.
Moll.	Molloy (Irish).
Mont. D. & D.	Montague, Deacon, and De Gex.

Moore P. C. C. Moore's Privy Council Cases.

My. & Cr. Mylne and Craig.
My & K. Mylne and Keen.
Nev. & Man. Neville and Manning.

Peach. Mar. Settl. Peachey on Marriage Settlements.

P. Wms. Peere Williams. Ph. Phillips.

Prec. Ch. Precedents in Chancery.
Rep. Lord Coke's Reports.

Rob. Robertson's Ecclesiastical Reports.

Roper, Husb. & Wife. Roper's Husband and Wife.

Russ. Russell.

Russ. & My. Russell and Mylne. Sand. Us. Sanders on Uses.

Sch. & Lef. Schoales and Lefroy (Irish). 'Sel. C. C. Select Chancery Cases.

Show. Shower. Sim. Simons.

Sm. & Giff. Smale and Giffard.

Sm. Man. Smith's Manual of Equity, 11th ed.

Sp. Spence's Equity.

St. Story's Equity Jurisprudence.

Sugd. V. & P. Sugden's Vendors and Purchasers, 14th ed.

Sw. & Tr. Swabey and Tristram. Swanst. Swanston.

T. R. Term Reports.
T. & R. Turner and Russell.

Vern. Vernon.

Ves. & B. Vesey and Beames.
Ves. Sr. Vesey, Senior.
Ves. Jr. Vesey, Junior.
W. R. Weekly Reporter.

Wms. on Assets.

Wms. on Exors.

Williams on Real Assets.

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Wilm.

Wilmot's Notes and Opinions, K. B.

Younge and Collyer's Exchequer Cases.

Yo. & Co. C. C. Younge and Collyer's Chancery Cases.

Y. & J. Younge and Jervis.



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ADDENDA ET CORRIGENDA.

- P. 39, footnote (f)—Allen v. Seckham is now reported in II Ch. Div. 790.
- P. 153, footnote (j)—Add Emma Silver Mining Co. v. Lewis, 4 C. P. Div. 396.
- P. 219, 3d line from top, for "imported" read "appointed."
- P. 269, footnote (g)—Sherwen v. Selkirk is now reported in 12 Ch. Div. 68.
- P. 270, footnote (j)—Add In re Bridgewater Engineering Co., 12 Ch. Div. 181.
- P. 283, footnote (h)—Richmond v. White reversed on appeal, and reported in 12 Ch. Div. 361.
- P. 292, footnote (y)—Add Bray v. Stevens, 12 Ch. Div. 162; Bailey v. Bailey, 12 Ch. Div. 268.
- P. 334, footnote (c)—Newington Local Board v. Eldridge is now reported in 12 Ch. Div. 349.
- P. 335, footnote (e)—Add Brown v. Trotman, 12 Ch. Div. 880.
- P. 335, footnote (g)-Add Lawrence v. Fletcher, 12 Ch. Div. 858.
- P. 335, footnote (i)-Add Hamer v. Giles, II Ch. Div. 942.
- P. 355, footnote (j)—Add Godfrey v. Harben, W. N. 1879, p. 175.
- P. 359, footnote (w)—Ex parte Jones, In re Grissell, is now reported in 12 Ch. Div. 484.
- P. 370, footnote (w)—Add De Greuchy v. Wills, 4 C. P. Div. 362;

 Collett v. Dickenson, 4 Exch. Div. 285.
- P. 376, footnote (u)—Add Robinson v. Robinson, 12 Ch. Div. 188.
- P. 382, footnote (g)—Taunton v. Morris, as affirmed on appeal, is now reported in 11 Ch. Div. 779.
- P. 390, footnote (a) -Add Robinson v. Robinson, 12 Ch. Div. 188.
- P. 412, footnote (a)—Add Lillingston v. Pares, 12 Ch. Div. 333;

 In re Bligh, 12 Ch. Div. 364.
- P. 515, footnote (o)-Add Hamer v. Giles, 11 Ch. Div. 942.
- P. 535, footnote (b)—Add Dashwood v. Jermyn, 12 Ch. Div. 776.
- P. 629.—Add Cobbold v. Pryke, 4 Exch. Div. 315.
- P. 637.—Add Ex parte M'Phail, 12 Ch. Div. 632; Tottenham v. Barry, 12 Ch. Div. 797.

- P. 657.—Boynton v. Boynton, on appeal, reported in 4 App. Ca. 733.
- P. 659.—Add Rutter v. Tregent, 12 Ch. Div. 758; Williamson v. L. & N. W. Rail, Co., 12 Ch. Div. 787.
- P. 696. -In re Orrell Colliery is now reported in 12 Ch. Div. 681.
- P. 718.-Add Hall v. Ley, 12 Ch. Div. 795.
- P. 723.—Add Polini v. Gray, Sturla v. Freccia, 12 Ch. Div. 438; Wilson v. Church (No. 2), 12 Ch. Div. 454.
- P. 739-740.—Add Brocklebank v. East London R. Co., 12 Ch. Div. 839.
- P. 743.—Galatti v. Wakefield, sub nomine Gatti v. Webster, is now reported in 12 Ch. Div. 771.; Potter v. Chambers, on appeal, is reported in 4 C. P. Div. 457; and add Neale v. Clarke, 4 Exch. Div. 286; Turner v. Heyland, 4 C. P. Div. 432.
- P. 744.—Add Lee Conservancy Board v. Button, 12 Ch. Div. 383.
- P. 744-745.—Add Aitcheson v. Lohre, 4 App. Ca. 755.
- P. 745.—Massey v. Allen is now reported in 12 Ch. Div. 807. Add Chatfield v. Sedgwick, 4 C. P. Div. 459.
- P. 751-752.—Add Rhodes v. Liverpool C. I. Co., 4 C. P. Div. 425.
- P. 753-754. Add Pheysey v. Pheysey, 12 Ch. Div. 305.
- P. 754. Add Dollman v. Jones, 12 Ch. Div. 553.
- P. 765 .- Add Lee v. Nuttall, 12 Ch. Div. 61.

THE

PRINCIPLES OF EQUITY.

PART I.—INTRODUCTORY.

CHAPTER I.

THE JURISDICTION IN EQUITY.

In treating of Equity, it is essential to distinguish the Nature and In its character of the jurisdicvarious senses in which that word is used. most general sense, we are accustomed to call that tion in equity. equity which in the transactions of mankind is founded in natural justice, or in honesty and right, and which properly arises ex æquo et bono. But it would be a great mistake to suppose that equity, as administered in the courts, embraces a jurisdiction so wide and various as the principles of natural justice. There are, on the contrary, many matters of natural justice which the courts leave wholly unprovided for, from the difficulty of framing any general rules to meet them, and from the doubtful policy of attempting to give a legal sanction to duties of imperfect obligation, such as charity, gratitude, and kindness. A large portion. therefore, of natural equity, in its widest sense, cannot be, at least, is not, judicially enforced, but must be, or,

at least, is in fact, left to the conscience of private individuals (a).

Definition of equity, -by province or extent, and

Are we then to infer that the equity of the Court reference to its of Chancery represents the enforceable residue of natural equity, or, to put the matter more accurately, notits content. the whole of that portion of natural equity which may be, and which, in fact, is, enforced by legal sanctions, as administered by the equity tribunals? Were we to arrive at that conclusion, we should not be far wrong, bearing in mind, however, not to ignore the claims of the common law and the statute law. The customary use of the term common law, it is true, contradistinguishes it from equity strictly so called; nevertheless, the common law is as much founded on natural justice and good conscience as equity is; and if the common law has, until recently, fallen short of equity in its operation, its failure is to be attributed to defects in the mode of administering its principles rather than to anv inherent weakness of or deficiency in the principles themselves. And, again, the enactments of the legislature (b) embody and give legal sanction to many principles of natural equity which, though capable of being administered by the courts, had been omitted to be recognised as such, - an omission arising probably from the tendency of all institutions to assume a defined and stereotypic form which refuses to receive further accessions, or to admit of alterations, even though coming from a cognate source. Having thus mapped out the whole area of what is termed natural justice, and so having seen that a large portion of it cannot be, or, in fact, is not, enforced at all by any civil tribunals, and that another large portion of it is enforced in the Common Law divisions, and a third part of it is enforced in the Com-

⁽a) Green v. Lyon, 21 W. R. 830.

⁽b) Maine's Ancient Law, 29.

mon Law and in the Equity divisions indifferently, by virtue of legislative enactments,—we are in a position to indicate, approximately, the province of equity strictly and properly so called. For, putting aside all that part of natural equity that is sanctioned and enforced by or by virtue of legislative enactments, equity may then be defined as being that portion of natural justice which, though of such a nature as properly to admit of being judicially enforced, was, from circumstances hereafter to be noticed, omitted to be enforced by the Common Law divisions, and which the Chancery division, or Court of Chancery, for reasons of its own, enforced. In short, the whole distinction between equity and law may be said to be a matter not so much of substance or of principle, as of form and history. The distinction, nevertheless, is a broad and permanent one, and has not been materially affected by the recent changes in the Supreme Judicature.

Before proceeding further, the student must endea- The older vour to understand, with their proper limitations, the definitions of equity stated. vague and inaccurate definitions or rather descriptions of equity, with which the text writers (chiefly the earlier ones) abound. Thus, one writer says that it is the duty of equity "to correct or mitigate the rigour, and what, in a proper sense, may be termed the injustice, of the common law." Another holds that "equity is a judicial interpretation of laws, which, pre-supposing the legislature to have intended what is just and right, pursues and effectuates that intention." Again, Lord Bacon lays it down, "Habeant similiter Curiæ Prætoriæ potestatem tam subveniendi contra rigorem legis, quam supplendi defectum legis." And on the solemn occasion of his accepting the office of Chancellor, he said that Chancery was ordained to supply the law, not to subvert the law.

All these definitions of equity are good (at least as The older.

definitions of equity explained.

descriptions of equity), so far as they go. In the early history of English equity jurisprudence, there was probably much to justify them. The courts of equity were, it is probable, not then bounded in all cases by definite rules, but acted on principles of good conscience and natural justice, without much restraint of any sort. In fact, it is not easy to see how the courts of equity could do otherwise, in those early times when no definite rules had as yet been made or settled; and if the early Chancellors had not assumed to themselves (as representing the Sovereign and fountain of justice) the necessary powers, the English equity system would (and, in fact, could) never have acquired its present dignity and influence for good, or even have come into existence at all.

Equity in modern times, -character of: I. Courts of equity bound and precedents.

But however indefinite may have been the functions of equity in its origin, there can be no doubt that the definitions or descriptions cited above do not express the by settled rules extent or character of equity at the present day. They would, in fact, mislead as definitions, and be inaccurate as descriptions, of modern equity. For a court of equity is now bound by settled rules as completely as a court of common law. "There are certain principles on which courts of equity act which are very well settled. cases which occur are various, but they are decided on fixed principles. Courts of equity have, in this respect, no more discretionary power than courts of common law. They decide new cases as they arise by the principles on which former cases have been decided, and may thus enlarge the operation of those principles, but the principles are as fixed and certain as the principles on which the courts of common law proceed"(c). Again, Blackstone says, "The system of our courts of equity is a laboured

connected system, governed by established rules, and bound down by precedents from which they do not depart" (d). Again, it is said that a court of equity 2. Modes of determines according to the spirit of the rule, and interpreting laws the same not according to the strictness of the letter. But in equity as at law. so also does a court of law. Both, for instance, are equally bound by, and equally profess to interpret laws according to, the true intent of the legislature. is not a single rule of interpreting laws that is not equally used by the judges in both the common law and the equity divisions; in fact, so far as the interpretation of laws is a question merely of construing enactments of the legislature, the construction in all the divisions is necessarily the same. Each division endeavours to fix and adopt the true sense of the law in question; neither can enlarge, diminish, or alter that sense in a single letter (e). In all the divisions, the distinction taken in Mr. Austin's Jurisprudence, between the ratio legis (i.e., the principle of a statute) and the ratio decidendi (i.e., the principle of a decided case), is strictly observed and acted upon, that is to say, both in the common law and in the equity divisions, the ratio decidendi alone is considered of weight in interpreting and in applying decided cases; and in all the divisions equally, if the words of the statute are clear, they alone are regarded, and the ratio legis receives no weight at all, but is considered (for whatever weight it has), together with other indicia of interpretation, if (and only if) the words of the statute in themselves are not clear (f). And, in fact, to indicate in a few words the distinction between modern equity and common law, it may be said, in the words again of Blackstone, that "the systems of jurisprudence in our courts, both of law and of equity, are now equally artificial systems, founded on the same principles of justice

(e) 3 Bl. 431.

⁽f) Heydon's case, 3 Rep. 7; Dwarris on Statutes, 2d ed., 563.

and positive law; but varied by different usages in the forms or modes of their proceedings" (g); and (it may be added) that since the Judicature Acts, 1873-76, the forms and modes of their proceedings even are hardly different, excepting so far as the diversities of the subject-matters, and of the relief adapted thereto, involve or carry with them a greater or less diversity of form or of procedure.

Having thus briefly indicated the nature and the province of equity, it remains to trace the origin of the distinction in England between common law and equity,—a distinction which is not without its parallel in the systems of jurisprudence in other countries also.

Origin of the jurisdiction in equity.

It is a well-known fact that, during the Anglo-Saxon and early Norman periods of English history, the principles of the civil law were familiar to the clergy, the great repositories of learning in early times; and that the clergy being in those days the expounders and administrators of the law, imported into their decisions or expositions of it, many of the principles, and much also of the practice, of the Roman law (h). And early in the twelfth century, shortly after the discovery of the Pandects, schools for the study of the Roman, i.e., civil law, were established in England, e.g., the school of Irnerius at Oxford. The familiar study of the civil law would, but for the untoward circumstances hereinafter mentioned, have gone far to obviate the necessity for any distinction between the jurisdictions of equity and of common law in England, and in this precise way, viz., the Roman law itself had from natural causes developed in the course of its history the like distinction, and had afterwards invented and effectively applied a method for abolishing, and had in

fact abolished, the distinction. So that the English law had merely to receive instruction from the Roman law, in order to forestall the growth of the distinction; but various circumstances have from time to time operated to prevent, and have prevented, the complete incorporation of the principles and practice of the Roman law into the English law. And in point of fact, the English law, it will be found, probably from being left to its own natural genius, has pursued a course remarkably analogous to the Roman law in its historical development, that is to say, it first developed the distinction between law and equity, and it has eventually invented and successfully applied a method for abolishing the distinction,—in the common fusion of the two

I. It has always been held, that the principles of Reasons of the common law are founded in reason and equity; separation beand so long as the common law was in the course of systems,its formation, it was capable—as indeed it has ever and equity. continued to be to some extent-not only of being extended to cases not expressly provided for by, but 1. The comfalling within the spirit of, the existing law, but also mon law became a jus of having the principles of equity applied by the strictum rather early. judges in their decisions, as circumstances arose which called for the application of such principles. But in course of time, and at a very early time, the common law completed its development, like a girl does her education; precedents were established by the judges, and were considered binding on succeeding judges; and it became difficult (and in numerous instances impossible) to make new precedents without interfering with those which had already been established. Hence, though new precedents have ever continued to be made, the common law became to a great extent a ius strictum, i.e., a system positive and inflexible, too early; and the rules of justice could not (or, at all events, would not and did not) accommodate them-

selves to the exigencies of new circumstances and new cases (i).

2. The Roman law was deprived of authority in the courts.

2. The Roman law, on the other hand, was incapable of universal application; e.g., the laws governing the tenure of land in England were founded on feudal principles, and involved distinctions, which, although not altogether alien to the doctrines of the Roman law, were most inadequately expressed therein. Moreover, the Roman law, even in its limited applicability to England, received from temporary and regrettable occasions a severe and lasting check in England. For it appears, judging at least from the current histories, that in the reign of Edward III. the court of Rome had become odious to the English king and people; and that an almost general dislike, on the part of the laity at least, to everything connected with the Holy See had begun to spring up. The very name of the Roman law became (it is alleged) the object of aversion. And in the next following reign of Richard II, the barons protested that they never would suffer the kingdom to be governed by the Roman law, and the judges prohibited it from being any longer cited (at least, as of authority) in the common law tribunals (j).

This discountenancing and general discouragement of the Roman law operated, of course, to aggravate the already positive and inflexible character of the common law. And this inflexibility was still further aggravated and perpetuated (at least, for centuries) by the next following cause of the separation between law and equity.

3. The system of procedure at common law was even more 3. Notwithstanding the obstacles aforesaid, the courts of common law might have become much more useful than they in fact did, had they not adopted an

inflexible, inelastic, and cramping system of procedure, inflexible than To the adoption of this inflexible procedure may be the principles of proximately attributed, though concurrently with the the common other causes noticed above, the eventual rise and rapid progress of the Court of Chancery as a separate jurisdiction.

According to the common law every species of civil wrong was supposed to fall within some particular class, and for every such class of wrong an appropriate remedy existed. The remedy in question assumed the form of a writ or BREVE; and the writ or breve was the first step in every action. Thus, if a man had suffered an injury, it was not competent for him to bring to the notice of a court of law the facts of the case in a simple and natural manner by merely stating them, leaving the court to say whether upon the facts stated the case was one deserving of redress; but he had first to determine within what class of wrong his case fell, and then to apply for the appropriate remedy The evil effects of this system of procedure or writ. showed themselves in a twofold way:-

- (a.) Even where the facts were such as to bring the alleged wrong within some one of the classes recognised at common law, the suitor was exposed to the risk of selecting an improper writ, and merely on that account failing in his action. This technical stumbling in limine, although from time to time relieved by subsequent legislation, continued to be a fertile source of injustice until the Common Law Procedure Act of 1852 (15 & 16 Vict., cap. 76), sec. 3, enacted that it should not be necessary for a plaintiff to mention any form of action in his writ of summons (k).
 - (b.) Another evil of the then system of procedure

⁽k) Sharrod v. N. W. R. Co., 4 Exch. Rep. 580.

was, that if the alleged wrong did not fall within any recognised class of writ, the plaintiff was absolutely without any remedy at all. The writ was inflexible and not capable of adaptation. This second evil appears to have been very early felt; for in the 13 Edw. I. a remedy was attempted for it.

4. "The Statute in Consimili Casu,"—attempted a remedy but failed.

4. At that time the writ for commencing actions at law was an original writ issuing out of the Chancery, and the drawing up of the writ was a part of the business of the clerks in Chancery. The remedy that was attempted was to give a larger discretion to the clerks in Chancery in the framing of the writ. It was accordingly enacted by the 13 Edw. I., stat. 1, cap. 24, that "whensoever from "henceforth it shall fortune in the Chancery that "in one case a writ is found, and in like case falling "under like law and requiring like remedy none is "found, the clerks of the Chancery shall agree in " making the writ, or the plaintiff may adjourn it until "the next Parliament; and the cases in which the "clerks cannot agree are to be written and referred by "them unto the next Parliament, and by agreement of "men learned in the law a writ is to be made, lest it "should happen that the court should long time fail to "minister justice unto complainant."

This enactment, which is commonly called "The Statute in Consimili Casu," proved wholly inadequate to meet the evil complained of, and that for the two following reasons, viz:—

(aa.) The judges of the common law courts assumed, and very properly assumed, a discretionary jurisdiction to decide on the validity of the writs as adapted by the clerks in Chancery (l). Probably many of the adaptations were both clumsy and impractical, and so

lengthy and verbose as to render the writ or breve a misnomer. Anyhow, the common law judges refused to recognise them in very many instances.

- (bb.) The progress of society and of civilisation, by giving rise to novel and unusual circumstances, increased the difficulty which the clerks in Chancery experienced in adapting new cases to old forms; and, no doubt, their well-meant but ineffective efforts only further aggravated the judges of the courts of common law. This occasion of difficulty was of course destined also to go on increasing. And further, in addition to new forms of action, new forms of defence also arose, for which no provision had been made (m), and which necessarily therefore fell beyond the jurisdiction of the common law (n).
- (5.) When the common law judges could not or 5. The Lord would not grant relief, the only course open to suitors Chancellor, by direction of the was to petition the king in Parliament or in council; Sovereign and the sovereign, in those troubled times seldom without personally ina foreign war or a rebellion at home to engage his tervened, at length, in 22 whole attention, generally referred the matter to the Edw. III. "keeper of his conscience," the Chancellor; and finally, in the reign of Edward III., the Chancellor came to be recognised as a permanent judge, and the Court of Chancery as a permanent jurisdiction distinct from the judges and the courts of the common law. empowered to give relief in cases which required extraordinary relief. The last-mentioned king, in the twentysecond year of his reign, by an ordinance referred all Ordinance of such matters as were "of grace" to the Chancellor or ²² Edw. III.

 Keeper of the Great Seal (o); and from that time, "of grace." suits by petition or bill, without any preliminary writ, became the common course of procedure before the

⁽m) 1 Sp. 325.

⁽n) See 17 & 18 Vict., c. 125, s. 83. (o) I Sp. 337.

Chancellor, i.e., in the Court of Chancery. On this bill or petition being presented, it was at once looked into by the Chancellor, and if the Chancellor thought that the case called for extraordinary relief, a writ called a writ of subpæna was issued by command of the Chancellor, in the name of the king, summoning the defendant to appear before the Chancery to answer the complaint, and to abide by the order of the court. personal examination of the bill or petition by the Chancellor was afterwards dispensed with, the signature of counsel to the bill or petition being accepted as a guarantee that the case was a proper one, sufficient to authorise the immediate issue of the writ of subpæna (p). Subsequently to and in consequence of the Chancery Jurisdiction Act, 1852 (15 & 16 Vict., c. 86), the writ of subpœna to appear to and answer the complaint was superseded, and was replaced by a mere indorsement of a writ to the like effect on the copy of bill served on the defendant. In effect, therefore, the bill became and was simply the first pleading on the part of the plaintiff in an action (or suit, as it was more commonly called) in the Court of Chancery.

The modern fusion of law and equity. By and in consequence of the Judicature Acts, 1873-76, and the rules and orders made thereunder (q), law and equity have in substance and effect been fused into one system, and a uniform system of procedure in the Chancery divisions, and in the Common Law divisions, has been introduced and become established. The particular steps in that new Procedure will be found detailed in Book the Second of this Treatise, i.e., under the "Practice in Equity;" it is sufficient to mention here, in order to complete the historical outline of the origin of the Jurisdiction in Equity given above, that an action (as it is now called)

⁽p) Langdell's Summary of Equity Pleading.

⁽q) See Griffith and Loveland's Practice under the Judicature Acts, 2d ed.

in the Chancery division of the High Court is now commenced, as in the Common Law division, by issuing a writ, which may or may not be (but usually is) afterwards followed up by a statement of claim on the part of the plaintiff, such statement of claim corresponding (excepting in, for the present, immaterial respects) with the old bill or petition to the Lord Chancellor, and being as heretofore the first pleading properly so called on the part of the plaintiff in an action.

From the preceding historical résumé, it will be seen that (as already hinted) the English Law has followed, in the history of its development, in the lines that the Roman Law pursued, or in like lines thereto, -first inventing the distinction between law and equity, and then inventing a means of abolishing the distinction. And let no one imagine that what two such nations as the Roman and the English have found cause to do, in respect either of the distinction itself or of the abolition thereof, has been or is either causeless or anomalous.

Prior to the Judicature Acts, 1873-76, it was Classification usual, in treatises on equity, to classify the various jurisdiction, subject-matters falling within the jurisdiction of equity prior to, and by relation to the common law, and accordingly to affected by, subdivide the jurisdiction into, and to arrange these Court of Judivarious subject-matters under, three heads, viz., the cature Act, exclusive, the concurrent, and the auxiliary jurisdictions in equity. However, now by the Supreme Court of Judicature Act, 1873, it is enacted, that in every civil cause or matter, law and equity shall be administered concurrently; and that in all matters not particularly mentioned in the Act, where there is any conflict or variance between the rules of equity and the rules of the common law, the rules of equity shall prevail (r).

But by the 34th section of the same Act, it is expressly enacted that there shall be assigned (subject to the general provisions of the Act) to the Chancery division (besides other matters not material to specify) all causes and matters for any of the purposes specified in the now stating section, and being the following various matters, that is to say,

- The administration of the estates of deceased persons;
- 2. The dissolution of partnership, and the taking of partnership and other accounts;
- 3. The redemption and foreclosure of mortgages;
- 4. The raising of portions and other charges on land;
- 5. The sale and distribution of the proceeds of property subject to any lien or charge;
- 6. The execution of trusts, charitable and private;
- The rectification, the setting aside, and the cancellation of deeds and other written instruments;
- 8. The specific performance of contracts between vendors and purchasers of real estate, including contracts for leases;
- 9. The partition or sale of real estates; and
- IO. The wardship of infants, and the care of infants' estates.

The effect, therefore, of the Act is, nominally, to put an end to the exclusive jurisdiction, as such, of the Court of Chancery, and to render that jurisdiction concurrent in all cases; but the effect of it, practically, is to retain as exclusive all that part of the jurisdiction which was formerly exclusive; and for that reason, as also because the above-mentioned distinctions illustrate historically the growth of the equity jurisdiction, and for other sufficient reasons of practical utility

appearing in the sequel, it has been thought expedient to retain the distinctions in the present edition.

I. Subject to the provisions of the last-mentioned I. Exclusive. Act, equity may be said to have exclusive jurisdiction in respect of all matters above enumerated that are expressly assigned to it by the Act, and also generally in all cases where there are any particular rights capable of being judicially enforced, but for which no forms of action were available at law.

II. In consequence of the said last-mentioned Act, II. Concurrent. equity now has a concurrent jurisdiction with law in all matters whatsoever, subject only to the provisions of the Act; but equity always had, even before the Act, a concurrent jurisdiction with the courts of common law in all cases where the law did not afford adequate relief, or where no, or no complete, relief could be obtained at law except by circuity of action, or by multiplicity of suits, and adequate and complete relief could be given in equity in one and the same action, as in the cases of accident, mistake, fraud, specific performance, and the like.

III. Prior to the Judicature Acts, equity had no III. Auxiliary. substantive jurisdiction in any of those cases in which the matter was exclusively cognisable at law; but if the courts of law, from any deficiency in their machinery, or defects in their procedure, were unable (as often happened) to procure that evidence which a court of equity could obtain by its more flexible and searching system of examination, then in every of such cases equity interposed its jurisdiction in aid of the courts of common law by providing such necessary evidence, unless restrained from doing so by equitable considerations of its own (s). On the other hand, where

^{8) 14 &}amp; 15 Vict., c. 99, s. 6; 17 & 18 Vict., c. 125, ss. 50, 51.

the courts of law could always afford adequate relief without the aid of equity and without circuity of action or multiplicity of suits, and could also take due care of the matter of evidence, and generally of the rights of all parties interested in the suit, equity had no jurisdiction (t). And in the proportion that the jurisdiction of equity in aid merely of the common law became (as it gradually did) less and less necessary,--the courts of common law becoming in the meantime more and more competent in themselves,—so in the like proportion the jurisdiction of equity "in aid," and which was thence called the "auxiliary" jurisdiction, grew more and more into disuse; and since the Judicature Acts, it is difficult to imagine any case in which the auxiliary jurisdiction proper can be wanted. But some such cases may, and doubtless will, arise in time.



CHAPTER II.

THE MAXIMS OF EQUITY.

Equity is pre-eminently a science; and like geometry or any other science, it starts with and assumes certain maxims, which are supposed to embody and to express the fundamental notions of the science. A common element of equity pervades each of the maxims, which sometimes gives them the appearance of running into each other; but with a little practice they are readily distinguishable; and it is highly necessary to keep the distinctions between them clear. Each maxim, therefore, both merits and requires a separate treatment,—as well a separate exposition as also a separate illustration of it. The maxims peculiar to equity are the following:

- Equity will not, by reason of a merely technical Maxims of defect, suffer a wrong to be without a remedy.
- 2. Equity follows the law, Æquitas sequitur legem.
- 3. Where there are equal equities, the first in time shall prevail.
- 4. Where there is equal equity, the law must prevail.
- 5. He who seeks equity must do equity.
- He who comes into equity must come with clean hands.
- 7. Delay defeats equities,—Vigilantibus non dormientibus, æquitas subvenit.
- 8. Equality is equity.
- Equity looks to the intent rather than to the form.

- 10. Equity looks on that as done which ought to have been done, or which has been agreed or directed to be done; and
- II. Equity imputes an intention to fulfil an obligation.
- r. Equity will not, by reason of a merely technical defect, suffer a a remedy.

I. Equity will not, by reason of a merely technical defect, suffer a wrong to be without a remedy.—It will be evident that this maxim is at the foundation of a wrong without large proportion of equity jurisprudence, so far as that jurisprudence aims at supplying the defects which at one time existed in the common law. For example, in the case of an outstanding dry legal term, prior in date to the plaintiff's title to an estate, -and which term, although a merely technical objection, would at law have prevented the plaintiff from recovering in ejectment,—the court of equity interposed to put the term out of the plaintiff's way, and even permitted him by means of an "ejectment-bill," as it was called. to recover the very possession of the land itself without regard to the term. Similarly, in the case of a mortgagor seeking to recover an estate or rent, the fact of the legal estate being in the mortgagee was no impediment in equity; and under the Judicature Act. 1873, sect. 25, sub-sect. 5, the rule in equity is made to prevail for the future at law also. The maxim must, however, be understood with the following limitations,-it must be understood as referring to rights which come within a class enforceable at law, or capable of being judicially enforced, and the enforcement of which would not occasion a greater detriment or inconvenience to the public than would result from leaving them to be disposed of in foro conscientiæ: and it must also be understood as referring to cases where there is no equal or superior adverse right or adverse equity in the private individual who is made defendant: and to cases where the plaintiff who is remediless at law has not lost his remedy there by his own

conduct or default. And it must also be remembered, that many real wrongs are not remediable at all, either at law or in equity; and that a still larger class of apparent wrongs are not wrongs at all, excepting in the imagination of the suitor; of course. the maxim does not apply to such.

- 2. Equity follows the law.—This maxim has two 2. Equity folprincipal applications, viz.:-
- (a.) In its concurrent jurisdiction, that is to say, as regards legal estates, rights, and interests, equity is strictly bound by the rules of law, and has no discretion to deviate from them.
- (b.) In its exclusive jurisdiction (including for this purpose its auxiliary jurisdiction also), that is to say, as regards equitable estates, rights, and interests, equity, although not strictly speaking bound by the rules of law, yet acts in analogy to these rules, wherever an analogy exists.

But the maxim in both its applications must be Limitations of taken with this limitation—that equity will suffer the the rule. rules of law to govern, and the course of law to proceed, in the absence, and only in the absence, of any circumstances which render it incumbent on a court of equity to interpose in accordance with the maxim previously mentioned, that equity will not suffer a wrong to be without a remedy (u).

(a.) As an illustration of the first application of this (a.) Concurmaxim, it is well settled that equity follows the law rent jurisdiction: Primoas to the rule of primogeniture, although that rule, in geniture, and rules of descent

generally.

⁽u) Sm. Man. 14, 15.

any particular instance in which it is so followed, may be productive of the greatest hardship towards all, or some, or one, of the younger members of a family, by leaving them, for example, without any sort of provision, while the eldest son may be in affluence. accidental circumstances create no equitable right, or equity, in favour of the youngest son against the eldest, and do not demand the interposition of a court of equity. The mere absence or want of provision, a circumstance arising perhaps from the culpable neglect of the parent, can create no equity against the eldest son, who has a right to the descended or entailed estate, without any reference to the circumstances of the other members of the family. No relief could be given in such a case as that, without directly breaking through a rule of law, which a court of equity never does, and has no power to do.

Following the law, equity may at the same time avoid it in effect.

And where the circumstances are of a different kind. that is to say, are sufficient to create an equitable right. or equity, then even there a court of equity never does break through a rule of law, or refuse to recognise it, because it has no power and no discretion in the matter; but while recognising the rule of law, and even maintaining it, a court of equity will in a proper case get round about, avoid, or obviate it. For example, if an eldest son should prevent his father from executing a proposed will devising one estate to a younger brother, by promising to convey such estate to such younger brother, and that estate should accordingly descend at law to the eldest son, a court of equity would interpose and say,—"True it is, you (the eldest son) have the estate at law, in other words, the legal estate: that we don't deny or interfere with; but precisely because you have it, you will make a convenient trustee of it for your younger brother, who (in our opinion) is equitably entitled to it."

And again, in Loffus v. Maw (v), a testator in ad-Loffus v. Maw. vanced years and in ill health induced his niece to equity avoiding reside with him as his housekeeper, on the verbal representation that he would leave her certain property by his will, which he accordingly prepared and executed, but subsequently by a codicil revoked. The court directed that the trusts of the will in favour of the niece should be performed. It held, that in cases of this kind, a representation that property is to be given, even though by a revocable instrument, is binding, where the person to whom the representation is made has acted upon the faith of it to his or her detriment; and that it is the law of the court, grounded on such detriment, that makes it binding; and that it does not matter that the represented mode of gift is of an essentially revocable character. There is here no setting aside of law; but there is the like avoiding of law as in the former case.

(b.) As an illustration of the second application of the Exclusive maxim now being explained, it may be mentioned (but Words of limitarian lands of limitarian lands). only briefly in this place, as the matter will be con-tation in deeds and wills. sidered at proper length in the following chapter, upon trusts exe-Trusts), that in construing the words of limitation of trusts executrust estates in deeds and wills, at least where the trust tory. estate is executed, and in some cases even where it is executory also, a court of equity follows the rule of law familiarly identified as the rule in Shelley's case, and also observes all the other rules of law for the construction of the words of limitation of legal estates. But where the trust estate is executory only, and the court sees an intention to exclude the rules of law for the construction of the words of limitation, then, and in that case, the court carries out the intention in analogy to the rules of law, but not in servile obedience to them, where such obedience would defeat the execution of the intention.

⁽v) 3 Giff. 592. And see Meluish v. Milton, L. R. 3 Ch. Div. 27.

(a. and b.) Con-Statutes of Limitations.

(a. and b.) As an illustration of the maxim in both of exclusive juris. its applications, we may refer to the manner in which dictions: The equity deals with the statutes of limitation for actions and suits. The old statutes of limitation were in their terms applicable to courts of law only; nevertheless, equity by analogy acted upon them, and refused relief under like circumstances. On the other hand, the modern statutes of limitation (3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 27, and 37 & 38 Vict., c. 57) are in their very terms applicable to courts of law and of equity indifferently. Moreover, apart from any statutes, and for reasons of its own, equity always discountenanced, and still discountenances, laches, and held and holds that laches is presumable in cases where it is positively declared at law. Thus, in cases of equitable title to land, equity required and requires relief to be sought within the same period in which an ejectment would lie at law (w); and in cases of personal claims, it also required and requires relief to be sought within the period prescribed for personal suits of a like nature (x). And although there are not (because there could not be) any cases where the statutes would be a bar at law, in which equity has given or could give relief; yet, on the other hand, there are many cases where the statutes would not be a bar at law, in which equity has notwithstanding refused relief. In other words, the rule of equity regarding the statutes of limitation may be stated (and, it is believed, with accuracy) thus,-that in its exclusive jurisdiction equity never exceeds, although, for reasons of its own (such as laches, &c.), it often stops a long way short of or within the limit of time prescribed at law; and that, in its concurrent jurisdiction, equity never either exceeds or abridges the limit of time prescribed at law (y). This exemplifies the two-

⁽w) Beckford v. Wade, 17 Ves. 99.

⁽x) Knox v. Gye, L. R. 5 H. L. 656; 21 Jac. I. c. 16; 9 Geo. IV., c. 14; 19 & 20 Vict., c. 97 (simple contract claims); 3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 42 (specialty contract claims).

⁽y) Fullwood v. Fullwood, 9 Ch. Div. 176.

fold operation of the maxim under discussion, equity in its concurrent jurisdiction being a slave to law, and in its exclusive jurisdiction being free (within the limits of law) to give weight to considerations of its own. The rule, as above stated, may be taken to be without any exception, although some of the books talk of exceptions to the rule, from having failed to grasp the rule. And, nota bene, time runs both at law and in equity from the discovery of the fraud (where the action is grounded on fraud), and not from the perpetration of the fraud (z); but this is no exception to the rule.

3. Qui prior est tempore, potior est jure. Where 3. Qui prior est equities are equal, the first in time shall prevail. est jure. This maxim is often misunderstood. It has been understood by some as meaning, that as between persons having only equitable interests, Qui prior est tempore, potior est jure—but this proposition is far from being universally true. In fact, not only is it not universally true as between persons having only equitable interests, but it is not universally true even where the equitable interests are of precisely the same nature, and in that respect precisely equal; for example, in the common case of two successive assignments for valuable consideration of a reversionary interest in stock standing in the names of trustees, if the second assignee has given notice to the trustee and the first has omitted to do so, the second assignee has priority over the first (a). Another form of stating the rule is thus: "As between persons having only equitable interests, if their equities are equal, Qui prior est tempore, potior est jure." This mode of stating the rule is not so obviously incorrect; vet, when examined, it is seen to involve a contradiction. For, when we talk of two persons having equal or unequal equities, in what sense do we

⁽z) 3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 27, § 26. (a) Loveridge v. Cooper, 3 Russ. 30.

use the word "equity"? For example, when we say that A. has a better equity than B., what is meant by that? It means only this-that according to those principles of right and justice which a court of equity recognises and acts upon, it will prefer A. to B., and will interfere to enforce the rights of A. as against B.; and therefore it is impossible, strictly speaking, that two persons should have "equal equities," except in a case in which a court of equity would altogether refuse to lend its assistance to either party as against the other. If the court will interfere to enforce the right of one against the other on any ground whatever, say on the ground of priority of time, how can it be said that the "equities" of the two are equal; i.e., in other words, how can it be said that the one has no better right to call for the interference of a court of equity than the other? The rule may be correctly stated thus,—that, as between persons having only equitable interests, if such equities are in all other respects equal, Qui prior est tempore, potior est jure—that in a contest between persons having only equitable interests, priority of time is the ground of preference last resorted to; i.e., that a court of equity will not prefer one to the other on the mere ground of priority of time, until it finds, on an examination of their relative merits, that there is no other sufficient ground of preference between them; or, in other words. that their equities are in all other respects equal; but if the one has on other grounds a better equity than the other, priority of time is immaterial (b). A single case will for the present suffice to illustrate the application of this maxim. A., B., C., three vendors entitled in common to a piece of land, sold the land to D.: on the day for completion of the purchase, A., B., C., and D. all attended at the office of the vendors' solicitor. when D. paid A. and B. their respective shares of the

True rule.

⁽b) Rice v. Rice, 2 Drew, 73. And see Spencer v. Clarke, 9 Ch. Div. 137.

purchase-money, but put off C. (who was a friend) until the day following, having promised C. faithfully to pay him his proportion of the purchase-money on that following morning. Then A. and B., and also C., executed the deed of conveyance to D., in which the payment of the entire purchase-money was acknowledged by A. and B., and also by C., and A. and B. and also C. severally also signed receipts indorsed on the deed of conveyance for their respective purchase moneys. Then C. very negligently and foolishly let D. take away the deed of conveyance (together with the other deeds) in his bag, although C. should have kept the deed and deeds at his solicitor's until payment of his share of the purchase-money. D. the same afternoon deposited the deeds with his bankers and never paid C. at all: Held, as between the bankers (equitable mortgagees by deposit) and C. (vendor having equitable lien), that the bankers, although second in date, were first in right, because of C.'s negligence (c).

4. Where there is equal equity, the law must pre-4. Where there vail.—This maxim is intimately connected with the is equal equity, one immediately preceding it; each depends on the prevail. other for its complete elucidation; each is the supplement of the other. The maxim immediately under consideration may be thus briefly explained: If the defendant has a claim to the passive protection of the court equal to the claim which the plaintiff has to call for the active aid of the court, he who has the legal estate will prevail. The case of Thorndike v. Hunt (d) furnishes a remarkable illustration of the application of this rule. The trustee of a sum of stock for T. was ordered, in a suit instituted by his cestui que trust, T., to transfer the money into court. The transfer was made, and the fund was treated as belonging to T.'s

⁽c) Rice v. Rice, 2 Drew, 73.

The legal estate, therefore, vested in the estate. Accountant-General (now Paymaster-General), for the purposes of T.'s trust. But it afterwards appeared that the trustee had provided himself with the means of paying T.'s fund into court by fraudulently misappropriating funds which he held in trust for another cestui que trust, B. The question was whether B. had a right to follow the money into court as against T.'s estate. It was held that B. had no such right, and for the following reasons:-That T. had no notice of the want of equitable title or honest right in the trustee to make this payment with B.'s money; that the transfer was for valuable consideration, because there was a debt due from the trustee for which the trustee would have been liable by execution of his goods, or by other means: that therefore B.'s right or equity to follow the money being no greater than T.'s right to retain it, the circumstance that the legal title was held for T. by the Accountant-General was sufficient to create a preference in favour of T. It is to be observed that B. was not altogether without a remedy, for, of course, he could proceed against the defaulting trustee personally for the trust money; but the case is a very hard one. and the like of which will not easily succeed again. the editor believes (e).

Defence of purchase for valuable consideration without notice.

General remarks as to its scope. The most important class of cases in which the two connected maxims have received a practical application, are those where a purchaser sets up the defence that he has purchased for valuable consideration without notice of the adverse title. The person setting up this plea thereby admits that on his purchase a good title did not pass to him: it likewise assumes a conflict between a legal and an equitable title; or between the holder of a title legal or equitable, and a person who is trying to assert an equity against him. It is evident

⁽e) Stackhouse v. Jersey (Countess), I J. & H. 721.

from the nature of the case that the question cannot arise between two legal titles, for their co-existence in two adverse individuals in respect of the same subjectmatter is impossible. Nor can the plea be used by a person having an equitable title against another having equal equity who is prior in point of time. Having premised these remarks with regard to the general scope of this species of defence, it is proposed to direct the attention of the student to the various cases in which the defence may, or may not, be made available.

Rule 1. Where the person who sets up the plea has (a.) Plaintiff the legal estate, or even the best right to call for the having equitlegal estate, a court of equity will grant no relief only, defenagainst him.

dant legal estate and equitable estate both.

Nothing can be clearer than that a purchaser for z. Where purvaluable consideration, without notice of a prior equit-chaser obtains the legal estate able right, obtaining the legal estate at the time of his at the time of purchase, is entitled to priority in equity as well as at purchase. law, according to the well-known maxim, Where equities are equal, the law shall prevail. Thus A., the owner of an estate, contracts with B. to sell it to him, and B. pays a part of the purchase-money before the conveyance to him has been actually executed; in law, until the actual conveyance of the property to B., he has no title; whereas, in contemplation of equity, which looks on that as done which ought to have been done, B., from the moment of the contract, is the owner of the estate. If, then, A., after this contract of sale with B., makes an absolute conveyance of the legal estate to C., who purchases it for valuable consideration without notice of B's lien or claim; here, as C. has the legal estate in him, and has besides purchased bonâ fide for value without notice, and his equity to retain the estate is equal to B.'s right to enforce his equitable lien on it or claim to it, therefore the court of equity will refuse to give B. any relief as against C.

2. Where purchaser gets in subsequently.

Not only is it clear that a purchaser for valuable the legal estate consideration without notice of a prior equitable right, obtaining the legal estate at the time of his purchase, will be protected, but it has also been decided that such a purchaser who has not obtained the legal estate at the time, may protect himself by subsequently getting in the outstanding legal estate, so long as he does not by that act become a party to a breach of trust (f); because, as the equities of both parties are equal, there is no reason why the purchaser should be deprived of the advantage he may obtain at law by superior activity or diligence (g).

> In Phillips v. Phillips (h), the law on the point is thus laid down by Westbury, L. C.:-"It is well known that if there are three encumbrancers, and the third encumbrancer, at the time of his encumbrance and payment of his money, had no notice of the prior encumbrances, then if the first mortgagee or encumbrancer has the legal estate, and the third pays him off, and takes an assignment of his securities and a conveyance of the legal estate, he is entitled to tack his third mortgage to the first mortgage he has so acquired, and to exclude the intermediate encumbrancer. But this doctrine is limited to the case where the first mortgagee has the legal title, for if the first mortgagee has not the legal title, the third mortgagee, by paying off the first, and obtaining a mere equitable transfer, acquires no priority thereby over the second."

3. Where purchaser has the best right to call for the legal estate.

And not only where the purchaser has actually obtained, but where he has the best right to call for the legal estate, will he be entitled to the protection of

⁽f) Saunders v. Dehew, 2 Vern. 271; Allen v. Knight, 5 Ha. 272.

⁽g) Goleborn v. Alcock, 2 Sim. 552; Pilcher v. Rawlins, 7 L. R. Ch. 259, overruling Carter v. Carter, 3 K. & J. 617.

⁽h) 10 W. R. 237; 31 L. J. Ch. 321; 8 Jur., N. S. 145; 5 L. T., N. S. 665.

equity. Thus, in Wilmot v. Pike (i), a first mortgage of the X. estate was made to A. in fee. A second mortgage in 1826 was then made to B. of the same estate. together with the Y. estate, by a release and conveyance of the respective premises to C. as a trustee for B., with power of sale. B. afterwards, in 1835, advanced a further sum to the mortgagor on the security of the same estates X. and Y., but gave no notice of the further advance either to A. or to C. Subsequently C., in 1840, after inquiry of A., whether he had notice of any encumbrance other than his own and that of which C. was trustee for B., advanced a further sum on his (C.'s) own account to the mortgagor on the same security, and gave notice of his mortgage to A. The question in the cause arose between B. and C. in respect of the third and fourth mortgages of 1835 and 1840 respectively, as to which was entitled to priority. It was held that, as to the X. estate, B. was entitled to priority over C. according to the maxim, Qui prior est tempore, potior est jure; for as regards that estate, B. and C. had only equitable interests, the legal estate being outstanding in A., the first mortgagee. But with regard to the Y. estate, C., the fourth mortgagee, having the legal estate in him, although by virtue only of his position as a trustee in the second mortgage of 1826, and also having advanced his money without notice of B.'s further advance in 1835, was entitled to priority over B. as to such further advance. "If a first encumbrancer has a What constideclaration of trust only by the borrower, and none tutes the best by the trustee, and the second encumbrancer has a for the legal formal mortgage of the equity of redemption, and the estate? trustee is a party to the deed, and declares himself a trustee for the second encumbrancer, will not that declaration by the trustee give the second priority over the first? I think the second would in that

case have a better right to call for the legal estate than the first; and if it would be so in the case of a stranger, I think the trustee cannot be precluded by his situation as trustee from claiming the benefit of the legal estate without notice. His case, however, might perhaps be supported on the simple ground that he had the legal estate, and advanced his money without notice, leaving every trust of which he had notice untouched by his present claim." Cases where questions arise between volunteers and subsequent purchasers for value may also be classed under this head (i). purchaser for value or mortgagee, having obtained possession of all the title-deeds, would likewise have the best right to call for the legal estate.

(b.) Plaintiff having legal estate and defendant the equitable estate: (aa.) Auxiliary jurisdiction.

Rule 2. Where an application is made to the auxiliary jurisdiction of the court, as contradistinguished from its concurrent jurisdiction, by the possessor of a legal title, and the defendant pleads he is in possession as a bona fide purchaser for value without notice, the defence is good, and the court gives no aid to the legal This branch of the subject will be illustrated by the following cases:—

Basset v. Nosworthy-dis-

In Basset v. Nosworthy (k), a bill was filed by an worthy-discovery simply, heir-at-law, claiming, under a legal title, against a person claiming as purchaser from the devisee under the will of his ancestor, but which will the plaintiff alleged had been revoked. The prayer of the bill was for discovery of the revocation of the will. defendant pleaded that he was a purchaser for valuable consideration, bona fide, without notice of any revocation, and the plea was allowed. Of course, the plaintiff might afterwards proceed at law in an action of ejectment, endeavouring there to make out his case upon his own evidence.

⁽j) Buckle v. Mitchell, 18 Ves. 100.

Again, in Wallwyn v. Lee (1), a tenant in tail, in Wallwyn v. possession under a marriage settlement, filed a bill Lee,—discovery and for discovery and delivery up of the title-deeds of delivery up. an estate which had been mortgaged by his father, who was tenant for life under a settlement and a private Act of Parliament. The defendant pleaded that the plaintiff's father, alleging himself to be seized in fee, and being in actual possession of the premises as apparent fee-simple owner, and being also in possession of the title-deeds relating thereto as apparent fee-simple owner thereof, executed the several mortgages under which the defendant claimed, and the defendant averred that he had no notice of the alleged fact that the plaintiff's father was only tenant for life. was argued for the plaintiff, that as the defendant was neither in possession, nor had the means of procuring it, the court ought not to allow him to keep the deeds for the sole purpose of (what counsel chose to call) It was held, however, that the plea was extortion. a good defence. "This bill," said Lord Eldon, "is filed by a person having got possession. If the principle is that this court will not stir against a purchaser for valuable consideration without notice, what are the legal rights of the son, tenant in tail when his father's estate determines? His legal rights are that he shall have possession of the estate. I do not know that I am entitled to say as much of the title-deeds, but only that he may recover in trover the value of the deeds, or in detinue (m), in which the judgment is for the deeds, or their value. But without attending to the imperfection of the law in such actions, which is probably the ground of jurisdiction here for the specific delivery up of the thing, I will suppose his right at law to the specific delivery up. It is true he is not seeking in equity to recover possession of the estate; but he is seeking to recover something which he can-

^{(1) 9} Ves. 24. (m) See 17 & 18 Vict., c. 123, s. 78.

not recover at law, the value of which non constat he can recover at law without the discovery of the deeds. Is it of necessity, then, that this court must hold, as against a purchaser for valuable consideration without notice, that if the possession of the estate has been got from him, the possession of the deeds shall be taken out of his hands by the court, and thrown to the person who has got from him the possession of the Is it not worth while considering rather, estate? whether the very principle of the plea is not this:-'I have honestly and bona fide paid for this, in order to make myself the owner of it, and you shall have no information from me as to the perfection or imperfection of my title, until you deliver me from the peril in which you state I have placed myself in the article of purchasing bona fide."

Joyce v. De Moleyns, delivery up.

The principle of the last-mentioned decision was followed by Lord Chancellor Sugden in Joyce v. De Moleyns (n). There the heir-at-law obtained possession of title-deeds relating to impropriate tithes. of which his second brother, under the will of their father, was tenant for life, and deposited them with bankers, by way of equitable mortgage, to secure a sum which the bankers advanced to him. On a bill being filed by the administrator of a bond creditor of the father for the administration of his estate, praying that the bankers might be decreed to deliver up the deeds, the bankers insisted that they were purchasers for valuable consideration, without notice of the will or of the title of any persons claiming thereunder, or of the demands of the plaintiff, and submitted that the bill should either be dismissed, or that the plaintiff should pay off the mortgage. The Lord Chancellor dismissed the bill as against the bankers, with costs. "I apprehend that the defence of a purchase for value

without notice is a shield as well against a legal as against an equitable title. That this is a good defence cannot be denied. Suppose a tenant for life under a will with remainder over, and that the tenant for life, being heir-at-law of the testator, conveys the inheritance to a purchaser without notice; the remainderman cannot have any relief in equity against the purchaser. He must establish his title outside of this court as well as he can. It is the same with respect to title-deeds. The defendants, therefore, use the possession of the deeds as they have a right to do, as a shield to protect them against the plaintiffs. They can make no use of the deeds themselves; they cannot maintain possession of them against the true owner; but in this court they have a right to say that they ought not to be compelled to deliver them up, as they obtained them bona fide and without fraud" (o).

But, as already suggested, it seems that this rule (bb.) Concurdoes not apply where the Court of Chancery, con-rent jurisdicturrently with courts of common law, affords legal as distinguished from equitable relief. The case of Williams v. Lambe (p) well illustrates this distinction. There a widow filed a bill against a purchaser from her husband, claiming her dower. The defendant pleaded that he was a purchaser of the estate for value without notice of the vendor being married. Lord Thurlow, however, overruled the plea. The same rule applies to a suit for tithes (q).

Rule 3. This rule is best stated in the words of (c.) Plaintiff having equit-

⁽o) See also Heath v. Crealock, L. R. 18 Eq. 215; and, on appeal, 10 Ch. App. 22.

⁽p) 3 Bro. C. C. 264.

⁽q) Collins v. Archer, I Russ. & My. 284; see also Finch v. Shaw, 19 Beav. 500; and Lord Westbury's remarks in Phillips v. Phillips, 8 Jur. N.S. 145; 10 W. R. 237; 31 L. J. Ch. 321; 5 L. T. N.S., 655.

able estate only, defendant also having equitable estate only. Lord Westbury in Phillips v. Phillips (r): "Now I take it to be a clear proposition that every conveyance of an equitable interest is an innocent conveyance; that is to say, the grant of a person entitled in equity passes only that which he is justly entitled to, and no more. If, therefore, a person possessed of an equitable estate, the legal estate being outstanding, makes an assurance by way of mortgage, or grants an annuity and afterwards conveys the whole estate to a purchaser, he can only grant to the purchaser that which he has, namely, the estate, subject to the annuity or mortgage, and no more. The subsequent grantee takes only that which is left in the grantor. Hence grantees and encumbrancers claiming only in equity take and are ranked (scil., in the absence of exceptional circumstances) according to the dates of their securities, and the maxim applies Qui prior est tempore, potior est jure. The first grantee is potior, that is, potentior. a better and a superior, because a prior, equity. first grantee has a right to be paid first; and it is quite immaterial whether the subsequent encumbrancers, at the time they took their securities and paid their money, had notice of the first encumbrance or not." Thus in Ford v. White (s), property in Middlesex was mortgaged to A., and afterwards to B., and subsequently to C., with notice of B.'s encumbrance; C. registered his mortgage before B., and afterwards assigned to D., who had no notice of B.'s mortgage. Held by Sir J. Romilly, M.R., that as C.'s interest was equitable, he could not, by assigning it to D. without notice, put him in a better situation than himself, and consequently that D. was not entitled to priority over B,—the prior registration by C. notwithstanding.

Notice of first encumbrance immaterial.

(d.) Plaintiff having an equity merely

Rule 4. Where there are circumstances that give rise to an "equity," as distinguished from an "equitable

estate: " for example, an equity to set aside a deed for and not an fraud, or to correct it for mistake or accident, and the equitable estate, defenpurchaser under the instrument puts forward the plea dant having both legal and of purchase for valuable consideration without notice, equitable the court will not interfere. Thus, in Sturge v. Starr (t) estates. a man, already married, performed the ceremony of marriage with a woman, and then joined with her in assigning her life interest in a trust-fund to a purchaser. Held, that though she might not have executed such an instrument had she been aware of the fraud practised upon her, that fraud could not affect the rights of a bonâ fide purchaser. This female had, doubtless, the strongest equity possible; but that equity, however strong in se, was no equity as against the purchaser.

The Doctrine of Notice. - No equitable doctrine is The doctrine better established than that the person who purchases of notice. an estate, although for valuable consideration, after notice of a prior equitable right, makes himself a mala Purchaser fide purchaser, and will not be enabled, by getting in with notice of prior claim, a the legal estate, to defeat such prior equitable interest, trustee to the extent of such but will be held a trustee for the benefit of the person claim. whose right he sought to defeat. Thus, in Potter v. Sanders (u), it was held that if a vendor contract with two different persons for the sale to each of them of the same estate, and if the party with whom the second contract is made should, after notice of the first contract, procure a conveyance of the legal estate in pursuance of his second contract, the court will, in a suit for specific performance by the first vendee against the vendor and second purchaser, decree the latter to convey the estate to the plaintiff. And to such an extent has the doctrine of notice been allowed to prevail, that it has even infringed upon the policy of the Registration Acts. Thus, in Le Neve v. Le Neve (v),

where lands in a register county, settled on a first marriage by deed which was not registered, were settled upon a second marriage, with notice of the former settlement, by deed which was registered pursuant to the statute, it was held that the former settlement should be preferred in equity to the latter settlement. "This is a species of fraud and dolus malus itself; for there is express knowledge that the first purchaser had the clear right to the estate, and with that knowledge an attempt is made to take away that right by getting in the legal estate." It must be borne in mind, that in the last-mentioned case, the husband who registered the second settlement was the person to blame for not registering the first. It also requires a very strong case to get over the effect of the local Registry Acts; e.q., express notice amounting to fraud is required, and merely constructive notice is not sufficient (w).

Secus, -subpurchaser with notice. Or sub-purchaser without notice. though his with notice.

It has long been settled that if a person purchases for valuable consideration with notice, from a person vendor bought who bought without notice, he may shelter himself under the first purchaser, for otherwise the first or bonâ fide purchaser would be unable to deal with his property, and the sale of estates would be very much vendor bought clogged; and even if a person who buys with notice sells to a bonâ fide purchaser for valuable consideration without notice, the latter may protect his title. In Harrison v. Forth (x), A. purchased an estate with notice of the plaintiff's encumbrance, and then sold it to B., who had no notice, who afterwards sold it to C., who had notice. Held, that though A. and C. had notice, yet if B. had no notice, the plaintiff could not be relieved against the defendant C. In this and similar cases, it may be assumed that the estate which

⁽w) Lee v. Clutton, 24 W. R. 106; and, on appeal, 942; 45 L. J. Ch. 43; Bradley v. Riches, 26 W. R. 910; 9 Ch. Div. 212.

⁽x) Prec. Ch. 51; and see At y. General v. Bi, hosphated Guano Co., 11 Ch. Div. 327.

A. had, which was successively assigned to B. and C., was the legal estate. Had the estates been equitable, as will have been seen from the third rule of this maxim, A., having had notice of a prior encumbrance, could not, by concealing his knowledge from B., make B.'s purchase more extensive than his own, or give a better right to his assignee than that which he himself possessed.

A purchaser for valuable consideration of an estate, Notice of even with notice of a voluntary settlement, will not be voluntary settlement affected by it, even though such voluntary settlement does not affect be in itself free from fraud, or even meritorious as a purchaser. provision for relations (y). This is a consequence of the words of the statute 27 Eliz. c. 4, against fraudulent conveyances.

What Constitutes Notice.—Notice is either actual or what consticonstructive, but there is (in general) no difference tutes notice. between them in their consequences (z), although in exceptional cases (as has been just pointed out) constructive notice has not the effect of actual notice. And, for many reasons, it is necessary to distinguish between actual and constructive notice.

I. As to actual notice, it suffices to say, that in Actual notice. order to make it binding, it must be given by a person interested in the property, and in the course of the negotiations (a). Vague reports from persons not interested in the property will not affect the purchaser's conscience, nor will he be bound by notice in a previous transaction which he had forgotten. And not only is a mere assertion that some other persons claim a title not sufficient, but even a general claim by the person

⁽y) Buckle v. Mitchell, 18 Ves. 100.

⁽z) Prosser v. Rice, 28 Beav. 68.

⁽a) Barnhart v. Greenshields, 9 Moo. P. C. 18.

himself who gives the notice, is perhaps not sufficient to affect a purchase (b).

Rule in Lloyd v. Banks.

In the recent case of Lloyd v. Banks (c) it was laid down by Cairns, L. C., that if it could be shown that a trustee in any way had got knowledge of a kind to operate upon the mind of any rational man, or man of business, and to make him act with reference to the knowledge so obtained, then there had been fixed upon the conscience of the trustee, and through that upon the trust fund, a security against its being parted with in a way inconsistent with the encumbrance so created.

Constructive notice.

2. Constructive notice in its nature is no more than evidence of notice, the presumption of which is so violent, that the court will not even allow of its being controvated (d), unless by the most convincing evidence to the contrary.

·What amounts to constructive notice depends on the circumstances of the case. Jones v. Smith.

It is by no means an easy matter to say what amounts to constructive notice; for much depends upon the circumstances of each particular case. In the case of Jones v. Smith (e), Wigram, V.C., states the law on the subject with great clearness. The facts of that case were as follows:—A person before advancing money on a mortgage, inquired of the intending mortgagor and his wife whether any settlement had been made upon their marriage, and was informed that a settlement had been made, but of the wife's fortune only, and that it did not include the husband's estate,—the only property which was proposed as a security. He then advanced the mortgage money, without having seen the settlement or knowing its contents. Held, that the mortgagee

⁽b) Sugd. V. & P. 755.

⁽c) L. R. 3 Ch. 488.

⁽d) Plumb v. Fluitt, 2 Anst. 438; Henderson v. Graves, 2 E. & A. 9.

⁽e) I Hare, 55.

was not, under the circumstances, affected with constructive notice of the contents of the settlement, or of the fact that the settlement comprised the husband's estate. It is scarcely possible to declare à priori what shall be deemed constructive notice, because unquestionably that which would not affect one man may be abundantly sufficient to affect another. But I believe I may, with sufficient accuracy for present purposes, Constructive assert that the cases in which constructive notice has kinds. been established resolve themselves into two classes. Firstly, cases in which the party charged has had actual 1. Where notice that the property in dispute was in fact charged, actual notice of a fact, encumbered, or in some way affected, and the court has which would have led to thereupon bound him with constructive notice of facts notice of other and instruments to a knowledge of which he would facts. have been led by an inquiry after the charge, encumbrance, or other circumstance affecting the property, of which he had actual notice; and, secondly, cases in 2. Where inwhich the court has been satisfied, from the evidence posely avoided before it, that the party charged had designedly abstained to escape notice. from inquiring, for the very purpose of avoiding notice,a purpose which, if proved, would clearly show that he had a suspicion of the truth, and a fraudulent determination not to learn it. If, in short, there is not actual notice that the property is in some way affected, and no fraudulent turning away from a knowledge of facts, which the res gestæ would suggest to a prudent mind, Mere want of but if mere want of caution, as distinguished from fraudu-caution not constructive lent and wilful blindness, is all that can be imputed to notice. the purchaser, then the doctrine of constructive notice will not apply; the purchaser will, in equity, be considered, as in fact he is, a bona fide purchaser without notice." As an illustration of the first part of the rule, may be cited the case of Bisco v. Earl of Banbury (f). In that case, a person purchased with actual notice of a specific mortgage; the deed creating the mortgage

⁽f) 1 Ch. Ca. 287; and disting. Allen v. Seckham, W.N. 1879, p. 85.

referred to other encumbrances. Held that the purchaser, knowing of the mortgage, ought to have inspected the deed, and that would have led him to a knowledge of the other deeds, and in that way the whole case must have been discovered by him (g). As an illustration of the second part of the rule, may be cited the case of Birch v. Ellames (h). There the title-deeds of an estate were deposited with the plaintiff as a security for his demand. The defendant, fourteen years after. upon the eve of the bankruptcy of the mortgagor, took a mortgage; he had notice of the deposit with the must be made. plaintiff, but avoided inquiring the purpose for which · it was made. The court decreed for the plaintiff (i).

Inquiry after title-deeds

> But the mere absence of title-deeds has never been held sufficient per se to affect a person with notice, if he has bonâ fide inquired for the deeds, and a reasonable excuse (e.g., that the wife made jelly covers of them) has been given for the non-delivery of them; for in that case the court cannot impute fraud or gross and wilful negligence to him (j). But the court will impute fraud or gross and wilful negligence to a person dealing respecting an estate, if he omits all inquiries as to deeds (k).

Notice to agent, &c., notice to principal.

Notice must have been in same transaction.

It is clear that notice to an agent, attorney, or counsel for the purchaser is (for certain purposes at least) constructive notice to his principal. And the same rule applies if the same agent be concerned for both vendor and purchaser in the same transaction, even if the

⁽g) Ware v. Egmont, 4 De G., M. & G. 473.

⁽h) 2 Anstr. 427.

⁽i) Whitbread v. Jordan, I Y. & C., Ex. Ca. 303.

⁽j) Allan v. Knight, 5 Hare, 272; Hewitt v. Loosemore, 9 Hare, 449; Spencer v. Clarke, 9 Ch. Div. 137.

⁽k) Worthington v. Morgan, 16 Sim. 547. But distinguish Lee v. Clutton, supra.

agent himself be the vendor (1). However, notice to counsel, agents, or solicitors, in order to affect in equity their employers, must have been given or imparted to them in the same transaction; for, if the law were otherwise, it would make purchasers' and mortgagees' titles depend on the memory of their counsel or agents. Where, however, one transaction is closely followed by and connected with another, or where it is clear that a previous transaction must have been present to the mind of the solicitor or counsel when engaged in another transaction, there the second transaction is to all intents and purposes one and the same transaction. subject was fully considered by Wigram, V.C., in the important case of Fuller v. Benett (m). There, after the commencement of a treaty for the sale of an estate by A., and the purchase of it by B., A. agreed to give C. a mortgage on the estate, as a security for an antecedent debt, and notice of the agreement with C. was given to the solicitors of B., the purchaser. The treaty for the sale by A. to B. afterwards ceased to be prosecuted for five years; and many things of course happened in the meantime. A. then died, and B. purchased the estate at a lower price from the heir and devisee of A. B. conveyed the estate in mortgage to D. The same solicitors were concerned for B., from the commencement of the treaty with A. until the final purchase of the estate, and for D. in the business of the mortgage. It was held, under the circumstances of the case, that B. and D. had, through their solicitors, constructive notice of the agreement with C., and that the estate in their hands was subject to the lien of C. for the amount agreed to be secured by the proposed mortgage. In the judgment his lordship thus succinctly lays down the general rules: "The general propositions,—first, that notice to the

⁽l) Le Neve v. Le Neve, 2 L. C; Spencer v. Topham, 2 Jur. N.S. 865; Saffron Walden Building Society v. Rayner, 10 Ch. Div. 696.
(m) 2 Hare, 394.

solicitor is notice to the client; secondly, that where a purchaser employs the same solicitor as the vendor, he (the purchaser) is affected with notice of whatever that solicitor had notice in his capacity of solicitor for either vendor or purchaser, in the transaction in which he is so employed; and thirdly, that the notice to the solicitor, which will alone bind the client, must be notice in that transaction in which the client employs him,-have not, as general propositions, been disputed at the bar." Finally, in order to affect a person with a constructive notice of facts within the knowledge of his solicitor, it is necessary not only that the knowledge should be derived from the same (or what is practically the same) transaction, but the knowledge must be material to that transaction, and such as it was the duty of the agent to communicate to his principal. See Wyllie v. Pollen (n), where it was held by Lord Westbury, C., that the transferee of a mortgage would not be affected by the knowledge of the solicitor acting for him in the transfer of an encumbrance subsequent to the original mortgage, so as to prevent him making further advances, such knowledge not being material to the business of the transfer. And of course this limit to the rule is only reasonable; in fact, the court very much dislikes this third variety of constructive notice, and the person who relies upon it must prove it very strictly.

- 5. He who seeks equity must do equity.
- 6. He who comes into equity must come with clean hands.
- 7. Equity aids the vigilant, not the indolent; in other words,—Delay defeats equities.

These three maxims may be viewed as together illustrating the great distinctive and governing principle of equity, that nothing can call forth a court of

⁽n) 32 L. J. (Ch.) N.S. 782; and see Bradley v. Riches, 9 Ch. Div. 212.

equity into activity but conscience, good faith, and personal diligence.

5. As an illustration of the maxim, "He who seeks 5. He who equity must do equity," may be briefly noticed the seeks equity must do equity. rules which govern what is termed a married woman's "equity to a settlement." The general rule is that Married wowhen a feme sole marries, her property (not being man's equity to a settlesettled to, or otherwise belonging to her for, her ment. separate use), subject to certain conditions, passes to her husband; all her choses in action which the husband can reduce into possession, without the aid of a court of equity, and also all her things in possession, he may realise; but the moment he is obliged to ask the assistance of equity for that purpose, the court will only aid him on conditions. If, for instance, a testator bequeaths a legacy to a married woman, her husband can only realise the legacy through a court of equity. The moment the husband comes into court to claim it, the court will tell him, "We will help you to get all the money, only on condition that you make a fair settlement out of it for the benefit of your wife and children" (o).

Another illustration of the same maxim is, where a Person standperson having a title to an estate stands by and know-ing by must give compeningly suffers a person ignorant of his title to expend sation. money upon the estate, either in buildings or in other improvements, and then afterwards asserts his title in a court of law. Upon proving his title, judgment would, of course (subject to the recent changes), be given for him without any compensation for the improvements executed by the defendant. In equity, however (and consequently, now also in a court of law), a person who had expended money under such

⁽o) Sturgis v. Champneys, 5 My. & Cr. 105.

circumstances on the estate of another would be entitled to be indemnified for his expenditure, either by pecuniary compensation, or otherwise in some cases, e.g., if he were a lessee under a defective lease, by a confirmation of his title (p).

in cases of specific performance.

The maxim is also frequently illustrated in that class of cases where, in consequence of some misde-Compensation scription in the property sold, a court of equity will not enforce specific performance of the contract at the suit of the vendor, unless he (the vendor) makes compensation to the defendant for the injury sustained by the latter from the misdescription (q), and so conversely, if the purchaser seeks to profit by any such misdescription.

6. He who comes into equity must come with clean hands.

6. As an illustration of the second of the three kindred maxims, viz.," He who comes into equity must come with clean hands," may be cited Overton v. Banister (r), in which this maxim received a very pointed illustra-There an infant, fraudulently concealing his age, obtained from his trustees part of a sum of stock to which he was entitled on coming of age; and when of age, a few months after, he applied for and received the residue of such stock. Then afterwards a suit was instituted to compel the trustees to pay over again the portion of stock improperly paid during minority; but the court held that the concealment of age was a fraud on the part of the infant, and neither himself nor his assignees were allowed to enforce repayment by the trustees of the stock paid during the minority (s).

⁽p) Ramsden v. Dyson, L. R. I H. L. 129; Powell v. Thomas, 6 Ha. 300.

⁽q) Knatchbull v. Greuber, I Mad. 153; Hughes v. Jones, 3 De G., F. & J. 307.

⁽r) 3 Hare, 503.

⁽s) Savage v. Foster, 9 Mod. 35; Nelson v. Stocker, 4 De G. & Jo. 458, 464.

The rule must be understood to refer of course to wilful misconduct in regard only to the matter in litigation, and not to any misconduct, however gross, which is unconnected with the matter in litigation, and with which the opposite party in the cause has no concern (t).

- 7. The doctrine expressed in the third of the three 7. Delay deconnected maxims, viz., "Delay defeats equities," or feats equities. (as it is otherwise expressed) "Equity aids the vigilant, Vigilantibus not the indolent," may be briefly summed in the lan-non dormientibus, æquitas guage of Lord Camden in Smith v. Clay (u):—"A court subvenit. of equity, which is never active in relief against conscience or public convenience, has always refused its aid to stale demands where the party has slept upon his rights, and acquiesced for a great length of time. Nothing can call forth this court into activity but conscience, good faith, and reasonable diligence" (v). And it may be added, that even a comparatively short period of delay, not satisfactorily accounted for, also tells heavily against a plaintiff in equity.
- 8. Equality is equity, or equity delighteth in 8. Equality is equality.—This maxim has a very large application in equity. many branches of equity; but it is perhaps nowhere so clearly illustrated as in the case of joint purchases and mortgages. If two persons advance and pay the purchase-money of an estate in equal portions, and Equity leans take a conveyance to them and their heirs, it con-against joint-tenancy. stitutes a joint-tenancy at law, that is, a purchase by them jointly of the estate with the chance of survivorship: and, of course, on the death of one, the survivor will take the whole estate. That is the rule not only at law, but also in equity as a general rule. But

⁽t) Sm. M. 23.

⁽u) 3 Bro. C. C. 640, note.

⁽v) Wright v. Vanderplank, z. K. & J. 1, 8. De. G., M. & G. 133; Laver v. Fielder, 32 Beav. 1; Strange v. Fooks, 4 Giff. 408.

Purchasemonev advanced in unequal shares.

wherever circumstances occur which a court of equity can lay hold of to prevent a survivorship, the court will readily do so; for joint-tenancy is not favoured in equity. Thus, in Lake v. Gibson (w), it was laid down, that where two or more purchase lands, and advance the purchase-money in unequal shares, and this appears on the deed itself, the mere circumstance of the inequality in the sums respectively advanced makes them in the nature of partners; and however the legal estate may survive, yet the survivor will in equity be considered as a trustee for the other, in proportion to the sum advanced by him, and of course a trustee also for himself in proportion to his own original share. "Where the parties advance the money equally, it may fairly be presumed that they purchased with a view to the benefit of survivorship; but where the money is advanced in unequal proportions, and no express intention appears to benefit disproportionately either of them, or especially the one advancing the smaller proportion, it is fair to presume that no such intention existed" (x). So, again, if two persons advance a sum of money, in equal or unequal shares, by way of mortgage, and take the mortgage to equal or in un- them jointly, and one of them dies, the survivor shall not in equity have the whole money due on the mortgage; but the representative of the deceased mortgagee shall have his proportion as a trust; for the mere circumstance that the transaction is a loan (and not a purchase) repels the presumption of an intention to hold the mortgage as a joint-tenancy (y), as there could have been no original intention by such a transaction to eventually acquire the land itself.

Money advanced on mortgage,-in equal shares.

9. Equity looks to the intent rather than to the form.

9. Equity looks to the intent rather than to the form.—Although this principle, even before the recent

w 1 L. C. 198. (x) Sugd. V. & P. 697, 1 L. C, 205. (y) Rigden v. Vallier, 2 Ves. Sr. 258; Morley v. Bird, 3 Ves. 631.

fusion of law and equity, was fully recognised in the common law, yet it was in equity that it received its complete exemplification. Equity would in no case permit the veil of mere form to hide the true bearings of a transaction. Thus it is a well-known rule that equity will relieve against a penalty or a forfeiture, Relief against unless in exceptional cases, e.g., the case of landlord forfeitures. and tenant; if, therefore, it is satisfied that the sum of money specified in a bond is penal, it will refuse to enforce payment thereof in full, even though the parties may state in the bond in express words that the specified sum is not by way of penalty, but is to be held as the ascertained or "liquidated damages" for breach of the condition of the bond. To this maxim may be referred also the equitable doctrines that govern mortgages, and nowhere, perhaps, more than in these was the ancient divergence of equity from common law so strongly and clearly exhibited (z).

10. "Equity looks on that as done which ought to ro. Equity have been done."—The true meaning of this maxim is, as done which that equity will treat the subject-matter of a contract, ought to have been done. as to its consequences and incidents, in the same manner as if the act contemplated by the parties had been completely executed. But equity will not thus act in favour of all persons, but only in favour of a limited class of persons, chiefly purchasers for value, whom equity regards with considerable affection. Thus, all agreements are considered as performed, which are made for a valuable consideration, in favour of persons entitled to insist upon their performance. They are to be considered as done at the time when, according to the tenor thereof, they ought to have been done. They are also deemed to have the same consequences attached to them: so that no party to these agreements or his privy shall derive benefit from his own

⁽z) Peachy v. Duke of Somerset, 2 L. C. 1100.

version.

laches or neglect to complete same; and the other Equitable con- party or his privy shall not suffer thereby. money by deed covenanted, or by will directed, to be laid out in land, is treated as already land in equity, from the moment that the deed and will respectively And, on the other hand, where land is take effect. by agreement contracted, or by will directed, to be sold, it is considered and treated as money. This maxim will be fully exemplified under the head of Equitable Conversion, hereinafter considered.

11. Equity imputes an intention to fulfil an obligation.

II. "Equity imputes an intention to fulfil an obligation."—Where a man is bound to do an act, and he does one which is capable of being considered as done in fulfilment of his obligation, it shall be so construed, because it is right to put the most favourable construction on the acts of others, and to presume that a man intends to be just before he is generous (a). on his marriage, a husband covenants to pay to the trustees of the marriage settlement the sum of £2000, to be laid out in land in the county of D., and to be settled upon the trusts of the settlement; and if the husband never pays the money to the trustees, but soon after the marriage he does in fact himself purchase land in the specified county, and takes a conveyance thereof to himself in fee, and then dies intestate, without bringing the lands into, or showing any [other] the slightest intention of settling them upon the trusts of, the settlement,—there, the purchased lands will be considered as purchased by the husband in pursuance of his covenant, and will be liable to the trusts of the settlement (b). Under this maxim the doctrines of satisfaction and performance in equity, and which are both hereinafter considered, find their places.

⁽a) 2 Sp. 204.

⁽b) Sowden v. Sowden, I Bro. C. C. 582.

PART II.

THE EXCLUSIVE FURISDICTION.

CHAPTER I.

TRUSTS GENERALLY.

PREVIOUSLY to the reign of Henry VIII., when the Feoffment, Statute of Uses was passed, a simple gift of lands to a with livery of seisin. person and his heirs, accompanied by livery of seisin, was all that was necessary to convey to that person an estate in fee-simple in the lands. The courts of law did not deem any consideration necessary; but if a man voluntarily gave lands to another, and put him in possession of them, they held the gift to be complete and irrevocable—just as a gift of money or goods, made without any consideration, is, and has ever been, if accompanied by delivery of possession, quite beyond the power of the giver to retract. In law, therefore, the person to whom a gift of lands was made, and seisin thereof delivered, was considered thenceforth to be the true owner of the lands (α). About the close of the reign of Edward III., a new species of estate unknown to Uses arise the common law sprung into existence. The Statutes temp. Edw. of Mortmain had prohibited lands from being given for religious purposes. In order to evade the stringency of these statutes, the lawyers (true to their constant habit) hit upon a means of evading them, the device being that of taking grants to third persons to

⁽a) William's Real Property, 152.

the use of the religious houses (b). In process of time such grants or (speaking more properly) feoffments to one person to the use of another became usual even where no question of religion entered, and these uses, though alien to the common law, took root in the equity juris-

prudence under the favouring influence of the Chancery, and even attained to a degree of influence and importance which eventually almost superseded the ancient common law (c). In law, the person, and he only, to whom a gift of lands was made and seisin delivered, was considered the owner of the land. In equity, however, this was not always the case; for the Chancellor, in the exercise of his jurisdiction over the conscience, held that the mere delivery of the possession or seisin to a feoffee was not at all conclusive of the right of the feoffee to enjoy the lands of which he was enfeoffed. Equity was unable, it is true, to take from him the title which he possessed at law, because equity (as we have seen) never sets aside, however much it may avoid, the law; but equity could and did compel him to make use of his legal title for the benefit of the persons who had the better claim to the benefit thereof. Thus, if A. conveyed land to B. to the use of C., this declaration of the use charged the conscience of B., the legal feoffee or grantee, but did not attach to the very land itself. If, therefore, B. refused to account to his cestui que use [i.e., he to whose use the property was conveyed. viz., C.] for the profits, or wrongfully conveyed the

Chancellor's jurisdiction over the conscience.

Uses not recognised at common law.

estate to another than C., this was a breach of confidence on the part of B., but one for which the common law gave no redress, not recognising C. at all, but only B., as owner of the land. To B., and to B. alone, attached the privileges and the liabilities of a landholder; for he it was to whom the possession was legally delivered. It was accordingly decided at a very early period (d), that the courts of common law had no juris-

diction whatever in regard to such uses as that in favour of C. But means were soon devised for compelling B., the owner in point of law, to keep good faith towards C., the owner in point of conscience. The king, in his Court of Chancery, assumed a jurisdiction to Uses recogextort a disclosure from B. upon his oath of the nature nised inequity. and extent of the confidence reposed in him, and to enforce a strict discharge of the duties of his trust. Hence equity arose. From the period when the right of C. became cognisable in the Court of Chancery, he became in fact the equitable or true and beneficial owner, and B. became merely the legal owner. the Court of Chancery, in assuming jurisdiction over Equity recog-the use, left untouched and inviolate the ownership at rules of law. the common law, because, in fact, as we are always saying, equity never could, nor can, upset (however much it may avoid) the law. The Court of Chancery exercised no direct control over the land, but exercised control over the person of the legal owner, and coerced him if he obstinately resisted its authority. It will be seen, therefore, that, by the introduction of the device of uses, many of the rules of property were virtually defeated; and that the clergy, e.g., who were prohibited by law from acquiring land, could, notwithstanding, acquire all the benefit thereof. Likewise, the factious Opportunities baron might vest his estate at law in friends, and after- of the abuse wards commit treason with impunity; and the ordinary proprietor, adopting the same precaution, might enjoy and also dispose of the beneficial interest, regardless of his lord and regardless also of the common law (e). It is not, indeed, suggested, although some writers have suggested, that these opportunities were abused; it is merely stated that the opportunities for abuse existed. But the legitimate advantages arising from the use were very great; and among the benefits so conferred upon the landowner, the power of disposing of his

lands by will, a power that is properly incident to ownership, was one of the most valuable and important. The land itself, it is true, was not yet devisable, but the use of the land was so; and the legal owner was bound in equity to observe the testamentary destination of the use (f).

The inroads which uses had made, and were still

Statute of Uses, 27 Hen. VIII. c. ro,converted the use into the legal estate. i.e., land at law.

making, on the ancient law of tenure, at length induced the Legislature to pass a statute for their regulation, viz., the famous Statute of Uses (q). By this statute it was enacted, that where any person or persons shall stand seised of any lands or other hereditaments to the use, confidence, or trust of any other person or persons, the persons that have any such use, confidence, or trust (by which were meant the persons beneficially entitled), shall be deemed in lawful seisin and possession of the same lands and hereditaments for such estates as they have the use, trust, or confidence. In other words, the use became converted into the land; the use by virtue of the statute was the land. The result of this enactment will be best seen in one or two examples. pose a feoffment made to A. and his heirs, and the I. Expressuse seisin duly delivered to him. If the feoffment is expressed to be made to A. and his heirs, to the use of B. and his heirs, A., who would before the statute have had an estate in fee-simple at law, now takes no permanent estate, but is by virtue of the statute a mere conduit pipe for conveying the estate to B. B., who would before have had the use shall now. having the use, be deemed in lawful seisin and possession of the lands—in other words, shall have the land, not only the beneficial interest, but also the feesimple estate at law, which is wrested from A. by virtue of the statute. Again, suppose a feoffment to

be made by X. to A. and his heirs simply, without

⁽f) Hayes' Intro. 36.

any consideration. Before the statute, X., the feoffor, 2. Resulting would, in this case, have been held in equity to have use. the use, for want of any consideration to pass it to the feoffee: therefore, after the statute, X., the feoffor, having the use, shall be deemed in lawful seisin and possession of the land; and, consequently, by such a feoffment, although livery of seisin is duly made to A.. yet no estate will pass to A.; for the moment A. obtains the estate, he holds it to the use of X., the feoffor, and the same moment instantly comes the statute and gives to the feoffor, who has the use, the seisin and possession also. The feoffor, X., therefore, instantly gets back all that he gave, and the use is said to result to himself (h); so much so, that X. is held to be in again of his old estate,—the intervening feoffment, with all its heavy formalities, reckoning for nothing.

With regard to the question, What is a sufficient The considera-consideration? it was anciently the rule, even in equity, to rebut a that a consideration, however trifling, given by the resulting use. feoffee. was sufficient to entitle him to retain for his own benefit absolutely the lands of which he was enfeoffed (i); although the entire absence of any consideration caused the use or beneficial ownership to result or to revert to the feoffor. But the Court of Chancery at the present day takes a different view, and will not grant or withhold its aid merely according as there is or not a merely trifling and nominal consideration, e.g., the customary five shillings' consideration; thus, circumstances of fraud, mistake, or the like, may induce the Court of Chancery to order the grantee, under a voluntary or practically voluntary conveyance. to hold merely as a trustee for the grantor: and it may be stated even more strongly than that, because, in fact, when the consideration is either absent or merely nominal, the onus is upon the grantee to prove

⁽h) I Sand. Us. 99, 100.

⁽i) 1 Sand. Us. 59, 62.

the intention of a beneficial gift to him, and failing such proof, the grantor enjoys the benefit, although the estate at law may continue vested in the grantee. This is not contrary to that other doctrine of the courts of equity, hereinafter spoken of, that the mere want or inadequacy of valuable consideration is not a sufficient cause for interference (j).

Statute of Uses,—failure of its object.

No use upon

a use at law.

The object of the enactment was completely to extirpate the doctrine of uses and trusts; we shall, however, see that the statute, so far from effecting that object, rather gave a fresh stimulus to the system it was intended to destroy. The statute aimed at rendering uses innoxious, by turning them into legal estates; but the common-law judges determined that if A., the legal owner of the land, was directed to hold the land to the use of B., who was directed to hold it to the use of C., the statute would carry the land to B. at law, but carry it no further, however plainly the intention might appear that the use or benefit was really designed for C. The ultimate use in favour of C. was "a use upon a use," i.e., a second use upon or after a first use, which second use the statute, having (in the opinion of the courts of common law) exhausted itself over the first use in favour of B., had no remaining energy to reach (k). It is scarcely necessary to point out, that the opinion of the courts of common law, although generally declared illiberal and narrow, was strictly right according to the accepted rules for the interpretation of statute law; and, in fact, many advantages have arisen from it. And among these advantages the line of demarcation between the legal and the equitable ownership was drawn broadly and unmistakably. In order to create, after the passing of the statute, an interest purely equitable, nothing more was necessary than to

⁽j) Coles v. Trecothick, 9 Ves. 246.

⁽k) Lloyd v. Passingham, 6 B. & C. 305; Hayes' Intro. 53.

declare a second use. Suppose, for example, that A. sold land to B., and B. desired to have the legal estate vested in C., in trust for B., the object was effected by A.'s conveying the land to B. to the use of C., to the use of, or, as we should now express it, in trust for, B. Here the land passes by the conveyance to B. under the old law, and the use in favour of C. carries the land to C. by virtue of the statute; and the beneficial Hence the and only substantial use being once more received into equitable jurisdiction. the bosom of equity, B. was there acknowledged as the beneficial owner (l), that is to say, the equitable owner.

We have now arrived at a very prevalent and important kind of interest, namely, an estate in equity merely, and not at law. The owner of such an estate had (prior to the recent fusion of law and equity) no title at all in any court of law, but must have had recourse exclusively to the Court of Chancery.

The word trust is never employed in modern con-Trust distinveyancing when it is intended to vest an estate in use,—for confee-simple in any person by force of the Statute of venience only. Such an intention is always carried into effect by the employment of the word use; and the word trust is reserved to signify a holding by one person for the benefit of another, similar to that which before the statute was called a use (m).

In the construction and regulation of trusts, equity Equity follows is said to follow the law; that is, the Court of the analogy of the law,—as Chancery generally adopts the rules of law applicable regards equitable estates. to legal estates. Thus a trust for A. for his life, or for A. and the heirs of his body, or for A. and his heirs, will respectively give A. an equitable estate for life, an equitable estate in tail, or an equitable estate in fee-simple. Again, an equitable estate in fee-simple

(l) Hayes' Intro. 53.

⁽m) Wms. R. Prop. 156; I Sand. Us. 278.

immediately belongs to every purchaser of freehold property the moment he has signed a contract for its purchase. If, therefore, the purchaser were to die intestate, the moment after a contract is completed as a contract simply, the equitable estate in fee-simple which he had just acquired would descend to his heirat-law, and the vendor would be a trustee for such heir, and would also be compellable to make a conveyance of the legal estate to the heir (n).

Property to which the Statute of Uses is inapplicable.

Not only the refusal of the common law to recognise a use upon a use,-a refusal depending, as we have seen, upon the construction of the Statute of Uses,but a further question of construction which arose on the statute, and which the courts of law construed in the like spirit (correct, but in appearance narrow and illiberal), tended to very much limit the application of the statute. The Statute of Uses, it will be observed, was pointed at the extirpation of uses of lands, tenements, and hereditaments only, and therefore it extended not to other species of property; and further, it will also be observed, as the statute spoke, in the case of lands, &c., only of persons "seised" of lands, &c., to the use of another or others, and seisin strictly so called applied and applies to freeholds only, and neither to leasehold nor to copyhold lands, it followed that the statute was confined in its legal operation to freehold lands. Consequently, the properties to which the Statute of Uses does not apply at law are much more numerous than the properties to which it does apply at law, and may be enumerated as follows:---

- 1. Pure personal property generally.
- 2. Impure personal property; otherwise chattels real; or leasehold lands; and
- 3. Copyhold lands (o).

⁽n) See Wms. R. Prop. 160, 161.

⁽o) 2 Ves. Sr. 257; I Sand. Us. 249.

Thus, with regard to all these three classes of properties, if any of them was vested in A. to the use of B., the statute was held not to transfer the legal interest to B., which therefore remained in A. at law, and B.'s use underwent no change except a change of name, for it was now called, in conformity with the style adopted in regard to freehold interests, a trust (p). And generally, with regard to trusts of all these three classes of property, the rules to be applied after the statute were the same that they were subject to before the statute. And as to freeholds even, only uses of a certain description were operated on by the statute. The only uses to which the statute applied were passive uses; for in regard to active uses, being uses which impose (as the name denotes) some active duties on the feoffee, e.g., to sell the land and divide the money, or to pay debts, &c., the statute was necessarily inoperative (q).

The next important statute that has a bearing upon Statute of trusts is the Statute of Frauds (r). Before that statute, Frauds,—trusts origintrusts of every species of property might have been ally created by parol, recreated, or might have been passed from one person to quired hence another, without any writing, and without the use even to be created of any particular form of words. But in consequence by writing. of the danger of permitting the often complicated directions of a trust to depend upon so uncertain a thing as memory, and generally to shut the door against the numerous frauds that might otherwise have entered under the pretext of simplicity, the Legislature thought fit to enact that certain species of trusts should be in writing. By the Statute of Frauds it was accordingly enacted as follows:-

Sec. 7. That all declarations or creations of trusts or

⁽p) Gilb. Us. 79. (q) Hayes' Intro. 51. (r) 29 Car. II. c. 3.

confidences, of any lands, tenements, or hereditaments, shall be manifested and proved by some writing, signed by the party who is by law enabled to declare such trusts, or by his last will in writing.

N.B.—The party here referred to as by law enabled to declare the trust, is of course the beneficial owner (s).

Sec. 9. That all grants and assignments of ANY trust or confidence shall likewise be in writing signed by the party granting or assigning the same, or by his last will.

Sec. 8. recognises two exceptions from the statute, viz.—

Exceptions.

- (a.) Trusts arising or resulting from any conveyance of lands or tenements, by implication or construction of law; and,
- (b.) Trusts transferred or extinguished by act or operation of law.

Property to which the Statute of Frauds is applicable.

It is clear that the last-mentioned statute extends to freehold lands; it has been decided that copyhold lands (t), and also leasehold lands or chattels real (u), are likewise within the Act, but that pure personal estate, i.e., chattels personal, are not within the Act (v). But so far as regards chattels personal, all that the court has ever decided is, that they are not within the 7th section (which treats of the declaration or original creation only of a trust); and it is the editor's opinion, that chattels personal are within the 9th section (which treats of the grant, i.e., the assignment, of an already created and subsisting trust).

⁽s) Kronheim v. Johnson, 7 Ch. Div. 60.

⁽t) Lewin Tr. 43; Withers v. Withers, Amb. 151.

⁽n) Forster v. Hale, 3 Ves. 696; Riddle v. Emerson, 1 Vern. 108.
(v) M'Fadden v. Jenkins, 1 Ph. 157; Benbow v. Townsend, 1 My. & K. 506.

A trust, as will be seen from the instances above Definition of given, is a beneficial interest in, or a beneficial owner-trust. ship of, real or personal property unattended with the legal ownership thereof (w).

Trusts may be classified under three heads: express Classification trusts, implied trusts, and constructive trusts. Those fall-of trusts,—express, iming under the first of these three heads may be again plied, and consubdivided, according to their objects, or their end and purpose, into express private trusts and express public Trusts implied and constructive, [or charitable] trusts. being the trusts falling under the second and third heads, are frequently confounded, or at least classed together, and it is not always easy to draw the line between them. It is proposed in the succeeding chapters to treat of each head or class of trust in the order above enumerated.

⁽w) 2 Sp. 875.

CHAPTER II.

EXPRESS PRIVATE TRUSTS.

Express trusts. An express trust is a trust which is clearly expressed by the author thereof, whether verbally or by writing.

Express trusts are of many varieties, which it is proposed to expound in order one after another.

I. Executed or executory.

Firstly, An express trust may be either executed or executory. A trust is said to be executed when no act is necessary to be done to give effect to it, the trust being finally declared by the instrument creating it; as where an estate is expressed to be conveyed to A. in trust for B., and the conveyance actually accomplishes what it professes to do. On the other hand, a trust is executory when there is a mere direction to convey upon certain trusts, and the instrument containing the direction to convey does not itself, proprio vigore, effect the conveyance which it directs. "All trusts," observes Lord St. Leonards, "are in a sense executory, because there is always something to be done. But that is not the sense which a court of equity puts upon the term 'executory trust.' A court of equity, in considering an executory trust as distinguished from a trust executing itself, or executed trust, distinguishes the two in this manner-Has the testator been what is called, and very properly called, his own conveyancer? Or has he, on the other hand, left it to the court to make out from general expressions what his intention is. If he has so defined that intention that you have nothing to do but to take the limitations he has given to you, and to convert

them into legal estates, then the trust is executed; but, otherwise, it is executory "(a).

In the case of trusts executed, a court of equity will As to trusts put the same construction on technical words as is put executed, by a court of law on limitations of legal estates. for instance, an estate is vested in trustees and their heirs in trust for A. for life, without impeachment of waste, with remainder to trustees to preserve contingent remainders, with remainder in trust for the heirs of the body of A., the trust being an executed trust, A., according to the rule in Shelley's case, which is a rule of law, will be held to take an estate tail (b); and to this rule, it is believed, there is no exception whatsoever. On the other hand, in the case of an executory As to trusts trust, that is to say, a trust raised either by stipulation executory,—equity may or or direction in express terms, or by necessary implica- may not follow tion, to make a settlement or assurance to uses or upon trusts which are indicated in, but not finally declared by, the instrument containing such stipulation or direction, as in the case of marriage articles, and as in the case of a will where property is vested in trustees to settle or convey in a more perfect and accurate manner, in both which cases a further act—viz., a settlement or a conveyance—is contemplated, then in these and the like cases a court of equity sometimes does, and sometimes does not, put the same construction on technical words as is put by a court of law on limitations of legal estates. It is unnecessary to say that the court of equity in thus acting, does not act capriciously or arbitrarily, but pursues with steadfastness certain rules or principles, which may be rendered easily intelligible. We shall endeavour to make them so; and, for that purpose, it is to be observed as follows:--

If. the law.

⁽a) Eyerton v. Brownlow, 4 H. L. Ca. 210.

⁽b) Jervoise v. D. of Northumberland, 1 J. & W. 559.

Two guiding principles in executory trusts.

- I. In cases of executory trusts, that is, where the trusts remain to be executed in the sense of perfect limitation above explained, a court of equity will not invariably construe the technical expressions in the document declaring the trust with legal strictness, but will occasionally execute the trusts, and, if necessary, mould them according to the intention of the creator of the trusts, even if that intention should be contrary to the strict legal effect of the language he has used. But if no such contrary intention can be collected, either from the instrument itself or from the nature of the case, a court of equity is bound to construe, and always does construe, the technical terms used in the instrument in strict accordance with their legal meaning (c).
- 2. There are two documents (and, it is believed, two documents only) in which executory trusts are found; and these documents are,—firstly, Marriage articles; and, secondly, Wills.

(a.) Marriage articles,—intention always implied.

Now, firstly, in marriage articles, the very object and purpose of these furnish in themselves an indication of intention. Their object is, of course, to make a provision for the issue of the marriage by a properly executed settlement, framed so as to carry out the clauses which the articles only imperfectly express; and it is not to be presumed that the contracting parties meant to put it in the power of either to defeat that purpose by limiting the estate to himself or herself absolutely. If, therefore, the agreement is to limit an estate for life to either or both of the contracting parties. with remainder to the heirs of the body or bodies of him, her, or them, the court decrees a strict settlement in conformity to the presumable intention. secondly, if a will directs the like limitation for life, with the like remainder to the heirs of the body, the

(b.) Wills,—intention requires to be expressed.

court has no such object or purpose necessarily before it as a ground for decreeing a strict settlement; and therefore, in the case of a will, it is not a matter of course, as it is in the case of marriage articles, to decree a strict settlement; and the court therefore does not invariably, but only occasionally, do so. A testator gives arbitrarily what estate he thinks fit; there is no presumption that he means one quantity of interest rather than another—an estate for life rather than in tail or in fee. The testator's intention in respect of the quantity of interest to be given can be known only from the words in which it is expressed, or rather directed to be given; but if it is clearly to be ascertained from the words of the will that the testator did not mean to give that precise quantity of estate which the words of limitation, when construed in strict accordance with the rules of law, would in fact give, then the court will decree such a settlement as the testator appears to have intended, and will depart from his literal words in order to execute that intention (d).

Each branch of the subject must be considered separately from the other—Firstly, therefore, as to executory trusts in marriage articles:-

If in articles before marriage for making a settle-Executory ment of the real estate of either the intended husband trusts under marriage or the intended wife, or of both, it is agreed that the articles,estate shall be settled upon the heirs of the body of (a.) Court will them, or either of them, in such terms as would, if settlement in conformity construed with legal strictness, according to the rule with presumed in Shelley's case, give both or either of them an estate tail, and enable both or either of them to defeat the provision for their issue, courts of equity, considering

⁽d) Blackburn v. Stables, 2 V. & B. 369; Deerhurst v. St. Albans, 5 Mad. 260.

the object of the articles, viz., to make provision for the issue of the marriage, will, in conformity with the presumed intention of the parties, decree a settlement to be made upon the husband or wife for life only, with remainder to the issue of the marriage in tail as purchasers. Thus, in Trevor v. Trevor (e), A., in consideration of a then intended marriage, covenanted with trustees to settle an estate to the use of himself for life, without impeachment of waste, remainder to his intended wife for life, remainder to the use of the heirs male of him on her body begotten, and the heirs male of such heirs male issuing, remainder to the right heirs of the said A. for ever:-Lord Macclesfield said that upon articles the case was stronger than on a will; that articles were only minutes or heads of the agreement of the parties, and ought to be so modelled when they came to be carried into execution as to make them effectual; and that the intention was to give A. only an estate for life; that if it had been otherwise the settlement would have been vain and ineffectual, and it would have been in A.'s power as soon as the articles were made to have destroyed them. And his lordship therefore held that A. was entitled to an estate for life only, and that his eldest son took by purchase, as tenant in tail (f).

It is believed that, in the case of marriage articles (not expressly directing to the contrary), there is no instance in which a court of equity has decreed, or will decree, any settlement other than a strict settlement like that decreed in *Trevor* v. *Trevor*, supra.

(b.) Executory trusts in wills, —Court seeks for the expressed intention.

Secondly,—As to executory trusts in will—

The intention of the testator must appear from the

⁽e) I P. W. 622.

⁽f) Affd. in H. of Lds. 5 Brown, P. C. Toml. ed. 122; Streatfield v. Streatfield, Ca. t. Talb. 176.

will itself that he meant "heirs of the body," or words of similar legal import, to be words of purchase. and not of limitation; otherwise, courts of equity will direct a settlement to be made according to the strict legal construction of those words.

Suppose, for instance, a devise to trustees in trust to Construed convey to A. for life, and after his decease to the heirs absence of an of his body; here, as no indication of intention appears expressed intention to the that the issue of A. should take as purchasers, the contrary,rule of law will prevail, and A. will take an estate tail, Bindon. although, as we have already seen, in the case of marriage articles similarly worded, he would have taken only an estate for life. Thus, in Sweetapple v. Bindon (g), B., by will ,gave £,300 to her daughter Mary, to be laid out by her executrix in lands, and settled to the only use of her daughter Mary and her children, and if she died without issue, the land to be equally divided between her brothers and sisters then living. Lord Cowper said, that had it been an immediate devise of land, Mary the daughter would have been, by the words of the will, tenant in tail; and in the case of a voluntary devise, the court must take it as they found it, and not lessen the estate or benefit of the devisee, although upon the like words in marriage articles it might have been otherwise.

On the other hand, if, for instance, there is a devise Construed to trustees, upon trust to convey to A. for life, and according to after his decease to the heirs of his body, and in the tention,—if will there are expressions from which it can be fairly pressed, inferred that the testator wanted a strict settlement Voice. of the lands devised, for example, either from the will mentioning the testator's desire that A. should marry, or from the testator expressing that A. (notwithstanding the apparent limitations aforesaid) should

⁽g) 2 Vern. 536. And see the Rule in Wild's case, Tud. Conveyancing Cases, 3rd ed., 669.

not have power to bar the entail, or other like words, -then the court of equity will endeavour to effect that intention, and will decree a strict settlement to be for that purpose executed. Thus, in the case of Papillon v. Voice (h), where A. bequeathed a sum of money to trustees in trust, to be laid out in the purchase of lands, to be settled on B. for life, without impeachment of waste, remainder to trustees and their heirs during the life of B. to preserve contingent remainders, remainder to the heirs of the body of B., remainder over, with power to B. to make a jointure; and by the same will, A. devised lands to B. for his life, without impeachment of waste, remainder to trustees and their heirs during the life of B. to preserve contingent remainders, remainder to the heirs of the body of B., remainder over, -Lord Chancellor King declared, as to that part of the case where lands were devised to B. for life, though said to be without impeachment of waste, with remainder to trustees to preserve contingent remainders, remainder to the heirs of the body of B,—this last remainder was in the general rule, and the words of it must operate as words of limitation, and consequently create a vested estate tail in B., and that the breaking into this rule would occasion the utmost uncertainty; but as to the other part, he declared that the court had power over the money directed by the will to be invested in land, and that the diversity was where the will passed a legal estate, and where it was only executory, and the party must come to the court in order to have the benefit of the will: that in the latter case the intention should take place, and not the rules of law; so that as to the lands to be purchased, they should be limited to B. for life, with power to B. to make a jointure, remainder to trustees during his life to preserve contingent remainders. remainder to his first and every other son in tail male successively, remainder over. And the reader

⁽h) 2 P. W. 471.

will have observed that, in the last-mentioned case, the already acquired lands devised by the will were so devised upon an executed trust, --- so that the rule in Shelley's case could not but apply, as we have, in fact, already stated at the outset of this chapter; but that, in the same case, the lands to be purchased, and then afterwards to be settled, devised by the will were so devised upon an executory trust,-so that the court was free to apply (or not) to apply the rule in Shelley's case, according as it found (or did not find) in the will itself some reference to a marriage or other indication of an intention contrary to the strict construction of the words. Now, the reference to jointuring was a reference to marriage, and was also a sufficient reference for the court to act upon. That reference took, in fact, that particular portion of the will out of the category of devises altogether, and put it (in effect) into the category of [one-sided] marriage articles; and, of course, the usual consequences had to follow, as above expounded.

In the following further cases, it was held that there What expreshad been a sufficient indication of the testator's inten- been held to tion that the words, "heir of the body," or words of show a consimilar import, should be construed as words of purtion. chase, and not of limitation, viz.,—where trustees were directed to settle an estate upon A. and the heirs of his body, taking special care that it should not be in the power of A. to dock the entail of the estate given to him during his life (i); or, again, "in such manner and form . . . as that, if A. should happen to die without leaving lawful issue, the property might then after his death descend unencumbered to B. (i); so also a direction that the settlement shall be made "as counsel shall advise" has been held to indicate an intention that there should be a strict settlement (k).

⁽i) Leonard v. Sussex, 2 Vern. 526. (j) Thompson v. Fisher, L. R. 10 Eq. 207.

⁽k) Bastard v. Proby, 2 Cox, 6.

II. Voluntary trusts, and trusts for value. Secondly,—An express trust may be either a voluntary trust or a trust for valuable consideration. Preliminary to entering upon the subject of voluntary conveyances and trusts, it may be useful to lay down a few principles of general application to the subject.

General rules.

1. Ex nudo
pacto non
oritur actio.

I. The principle of the maxim, Ex nudo pacto non oritur actio, is as universally recognised in English equity as at law. Thus, in Jefferys v. Jefferys (l), a father, who had by voluntary settlement conveyed certain freeholds, and covenanted to surrender [but had never actually surrendered] certain copyholds to trustees in trust for the benefit of his daughters, afterwards devised the same freehold and copyhold estates to his widow, by a will dated subsequently to Preston's Act, 1815 (55 Geo. III., c. 192), being the Act which first rendered a surrender to the uses of the will unnecessary. It followed from this that the will was completely effective not only as to the freehold lands, but also as to the copyhold lands, while the deed of voluntary settlement was completely effective as to the freeholds, but only incompletely effective as to the copyholds. A suit having been instituted by the daughters after the testator's death to have the trusts of the settlement carried into effect, and to compel the widow to surrender to them the copyholds to which she had meanwhile been admitted, the Lord Chancellor said,—"The title of the plaintiffs (the daughters) to the freeholds is complete; and being first in date, is also But with respect to the copyholds, I first in right. have no doubt that the court will not execute a voluntary contract; and my impression is, that the principle of the court, to withhold its assistance from a volunteer, applies equally whether he seeks to have the benefit of a contract, a covenant, or a settlement "(m).

⁽l) Cr. & Ph. 138.

⁽m) Wilkinson v. Wilkinson, 4 Jur. N. S. 47.

sequently, the widow kept the copyholds, but the daughters got the freeholds.

- 2. An imperfect conveyance is in equity regarded as 2. Imperfect evidencing a contract, binding or not binding as the conveyance,—evidence of a case may be (n); and when this statement is resolved contract. into its elements, it amounts to this—(1) An imperfect conveyance, if for valuable consideration, is binding; and (2) an imperfect conveyance, if voluntary, is not binding. And reading these principles backwards, they hold equally true; for (1) a conveyance for value is binding, although imperfect; but (2) a voluntary conveyance is not binding, if imperfect.
- 3. On the other hand, a voluntary conveyance may, 3. Trust may of course, be perfect; and if perfect, it will be binding. Consideration. In other words, a trust may be raised without any consideration. In Ellison v. Ellison (o), Lord Eldon says,—"I had no doubt that from the moment of executing the first deed, supposing it not to have been for wife and children, but for pure volunteers, these volunteers might have filed a bill in equity on the ground of their interest under the instrument. . . . I take the distinction to be that if you want the assistance of the court to constitute you cestui que trust, and the instrument is voluntary, you shall not have that assistance for the purpose of constituting you cestui que trust" (p), implying that, if you are already completely constituted, then you are all right, and may enforce your rights under the deed.

It will be found, in fact, that all the cases which Has relation of have been decided on voluntary trusts, whether in cestui que trust been confavour of or against the volunteers, have turned upon stituted?

⁽n) Parker v. Taswell, 4 Jur. N.S. 183; 2 De G. & J. 559.(o) 1 L. C. 271.

⁽p) Jones v. Lock, L. R. 1 Ch. 25.

the single inquiry,—Has the trust been completely constituted or declared? Because, if so, it is binding; and if not so, it is no good at all, even as a ground of action for completely constituting it. The inquiry is, however, sometimes one of the greatest nicety, depending on various considerations, which it is now proposed to examine.

- I. Where table owner.
- I. Cases where the donor has the legal as well as donor is both legal and equi- the equitable interest in the property, which is the subject of contest.
- (a.) Trust actually executed,-either (I) by conveyance or assignment upon trust, or (2) by donor's declaration of trust.
- (a.) If the conveyance to the done in trust for him be actually and effectually made, as if a person by a complete legal conveyance has transferred land or stock. no difficulty will arise, for then equity will enforce the trust even in favour of a volunteer against the author of the trust, and all subsequent volunteers (q). And the rule is the same, not only if the donor has effectually conveyed the property to trustees for the donee, but also where the donor, being legal and equitable owner of property, declares himself a trustee for the donee; a binding trust is thus created. The efficacy of a simple declaration of trust is laid down by Lord Eldon in the case of ex parte Pye (r), as follows: "It is clear that this court will not assist a volunteer,—that upon an agreement to transfer stock this court will not But if the party has declared himself to be the trustee of that stock, it becomes the property of the cestui que trust without more, and the court will act upon it."
- (b.) Trust not actually executed,-either
- (b.) It often happens, however, that the donor has not made or intended to make any declaration of trust (1) no declara- properly so called, but has attempted to make a com-

⁽q) Ellison v. Ellison, I L. C. 273.

⁽r) Ex parte Pye, ex parte Dubost, 18 Ves. 140, 145.

plete legal conveyance or assignment, and has failed to tion of trust, do so. In considering the legal or equitable effect of or (2) incomplete consuch ineffectual attempts, it becomes necessary to draw veyance or assignment on the following distinctions, viz.:-

(1.) If the property in such a case is of a species (1.) Of property that admits of a complete conveyance or assignment assignable at at law, the donee will receive no aid from the court to perfect the apparently intended gift.

Thus, in Antrobus v. Smith (s), A. made the following Antrobus v. endorsement upon the receipt for one of the subscrip- Smith, endorsement tions in the Forth and Clyde Navigation Company:— under hand only, and "I do hereby assign to my daughter B. all my right, purporting to title, and interest of and in the enclosed call, and all assign. other calls in the F. and C. Navigation." There was no evidence that A. had parted with the paper. Held, that no trust was created in favour of B. The Master of the Rolls said,—"But this instrument was of itself incapable of conveying the property. It is said to amount to a declaration of trust. Mr. Crawfurd was no otherwise a trustee than as any man may be called so who professes to give property by an instrument incapable of conveying it. He was not in form declared a trustee, nor was that mode of doing what he proposed in his contemplation. He meant a gift. He says he assigns the property, but it was a gift not complete. The property was not transferred by the act. Could he himself have been compelled to give effect to the gift by making an assignment? There is no case in which a party has been compelled to perfect a gift which, in the mode of making it, he has left imperfect. There is a locus pænitentiæ, as long as it is incomplete."

In Searle v. Law (t), A. made a voluntary assignment Searle v. Law,

^{(8) 12} Ves. 39.

—non-compliance with the particular formalities required on an assignment.

of Turnpike Bonds and Shares in a Railway Company in trust for himself for life, and after his death for his nephew. He delivered the bonds and shares to B., but did not observe the formalities required by the Turnpike Road Act, and the deeds by which the Company was formed, to make the assignment effectual. Held, on his death, that no interest, either in the bonds or in the shares, passed by the assignment, and that B. ought to The Vice-Chancellor deliver them to A.'s executors. said,—" If that gentleman had not attempted to make any assignment of either the bonds or the shares, but had simply declared in writing that he would hold them on the same trusts as are expressed in the deed, that declaration would have been binding on him, and whatever bound him would have bound his personal represen-But it is evident that he had no intention whatever of being himself a trustee for any one, and that he meant all the persons named in the deed as cestui que trusts to take the provision intended for them through the operation of that deed. He omitted, however, to take the proper steps to make that deed an effectual assignment, and therefore both the legal and the beneficial interest in the bonds and shares remained vested in him at his death."

(2.)Of property not assignable at law.

(2.) But if the property conveyed or assigned be not such that it may properly be transferred at law, the conveyance or assignment of it will be held good if the donor has done all that he could to perfect the assignment.

Fortescue v. Barnett,—
policy of assurance, purported assignment of, by deed.

Thus in *Fortescue* v. *Barnett* (u), J. B. made a voluntary assignment by deed of a policy of assurance upon his own life for £1000 to trustees upon trust, for the benefit of his sister and her children if she or they should outlive him. The deed was delivered to one of

the trustees, but the grantor kept the policy in his own possession. No notice of the assignment was given to the Assurance Office, and J. B. afterwards surrendered. for valuable consideration, the policy and a bonus declared upon it, to the Assurance Office. Upon a bill filed by the surviving trustee of the deed to have the value of the policy replaced, the court held that, upon the delivery of the deed, no act remained to be done by the assignor to give effect to the assignment of the policy, and that he was bound to give security to the amount of the value of the policy assigned by the deed. The Master of the Rolls said,—"In the present case, the gift of the policy appears to me to have been perfectly complete without delivery. Nothing remained to be done by the grantor, nor could he have done what he afterwards did to defeat his own grant, if the trustees had given notice of the assignment to the Assurance Office. The question does not here turn upon any distinction between a legal and an equitable title, but simply upon whether any act remained to be done by the grantor, which to assist a volunteer this court would not compel him to do. I am of opinion, that no act remained to be done to complete the title of the trustees"

In Edwards v. Jones (v), the obligee of a bond, five Edwards v. days before her death, signed a memorandum not under Jones,—Bond purporting to seal, which was endorsed upon the bond, and which be assigned purported to be an assignment of the bond without by memoranconsideration to a person to whom the bond was at the hand only. same time delivered. Held, that the gift was incomplete, and that as it was without consideration, the court could not give effect to it. The Lord Chancellor said,—"The transaction being inoperative for the purpose of transferring the bond, which was a mere chose in action, the question comes to be, whether the mere

handing over of the bond . . . would constitute a good gift *inter vivos*; that is to say, whether the plaintiff would be entitled to the assistance of a court of equity for the purpose of carrying into effect the intention of the parties. Now, it is clear that this is a purely voluntary gift, and a gift which cannot be made effectual without the interposition of this court." (w).

Pearson v.
Amicable
Society,—
policy of
assurance,—
purported assignment of,
by deed.

The cases on this subject are in no sense conflicting, provided the distinctions taken above are borne in mind. The rules regulating the matter have been clearly enunciated and applied in the case of Pearson v. Amicable Assurance Office (x). There G. T. effected an assurance on his life with the Amicable Society. He then executed a voluntary settlement of the policy, assigning it to trustees to hold on the trusts of the voluntary settlement, and at the same time gave the trustee an irrevocable power of attorney. G. T. died, and the trustees claimed the amount from the company, but their claim was resisted by the executors, who gave notice to the office not to pay the amount to the trustees. The Assurance Company paid the money into Court. The Master of the Rolls said,-"The question is, whether this is a complete instrument, or whether it requires the assistance of a court of equity for its enforcement. I am of opinion that it is a complete and perfect instrument."

Assignment of Policies, and legal choses in action.

It may here be observed that certain classes of property, not formerly assignable at law, have since the date of the foregoing decisions been made assignable at law (y); consequently, the distinction aforesaid

⁽w) Blakely v. Brady, 2 Dr. & Walsh, 311, and distinguish Baddeley v. Baddeley, 9 Ch. Div. 113.

⁽x) 27 Beav. 229.
(y) Policies of life assurance are assignable under 30 & 31 Vict., c. 144; policies of marine insurance under 31 & 32 Vict., c. 86; and debts and other legal choses in action generally under 36 & 37 Vict., c. 66, s. 25, sub-sec. 6.

between property that is, and property that is not, properly assignable at law, is for the future rendered unnecessary, and the question in all cases now is simply whether the property has been in fact completely assigned at law or only incompletely assigned at law.

II. Cases where the donor has only an equitable II. Where interest in the property assigned.

equitable owner.

(a.) In this case if the settlor directs trustees to (a.) Trustactuhold the property in trust for the donee, though with- ally executed, -either (1) by out consideration, a trust is well and irrevocably direction to trustees to created (z). Such a direction must be in writing as hold on trust. regards lands; but it has been held that a direction Parol declaraby parol is sufficient to create a trust, as regards binds perpersonal property. Thus, in M-Fadden v. Jenkins (a), sonalty. A. sent a verbal message to his debtor B., desiring him to hold the debt in trust for C. B. accepted the trust, and acted on it by paying C. a small part of the trustmoney. It was held, that a trust had attached to the property, and that the transaction amounted to the same thing, as if A. had declared himself, instead of B., a trustee of the debt for the plaintiff.

It does not now seem to be considered necessary to Notice to the validity of the creation of a trust by the beneficial trustees unnecessary exowner of property, that there should be notice to, or cept as against third parties. an acceptance, or declaration of the trusts by, the trustees, in whom the legal interest is vested (b): notice is, however, necessary to protect the cestui que trust as against third parties (c.)

(b.) Cases where, instead of giving directions to Or (2) by con-

⁽z) Bill v. Cureton, 2 My. & K. 503.
(b) Tierney v. Wood, 19 Beav. 330; Donaldson v. Donaldson, Kay, 711; Kronheim v. Johnson, 7 Ch. Div. 60.
(c) Donaldson v. Donaldson, Kay, 719.

veyance or assignment of equitable interest. trustees to hold for the benefit of volunteers, the donor assigns his equitable interest without consideration to another.

Two groups of cases occur under this head:

- (1.) Lands,—equitable interest in;
- (2.) Personalty,—equitable interest in.

Gilbert v. Overton,—Lands, assignment of equitable interest in, by deed. (I.) Lands,—equitable interest in:—

In Gilbert v. Overton (d), a settlor, holding an agreement for a lease, subject to rents and covenants, by voluntary deed, assigned all his interest to trustees, to hold upon the trusts thereby declared, and shortly afterwards took a lease under the agreement to him-The legal estate was never assigned to the It did not appear, whether at the date of the settlement the settlor was entitled to call for an immediate lease. Held, that the settlement was complete, and ought to be carried into execution. In giving judgment, Lord Hatherley, then Vice-Chancellor, said, -"It appears to me there are several reasons for upholding the settlement. In the first place, it contains a declaration of trust, and that is all that is wanted to make any settlement effectual. The settlor convevs his equitable interest, and directs the trustees to hold it upon the trusts thereby declared. In the inception of the transaction, there is nothing to show that the settlor had the power of obtaining a lease before the time when he did so, after the execution of the settle-There is, therefore, nothing to show that the ment. settlor did not, by the settlement, do all that it was in his power to do, to pass the property. If this were not sufficient, it would be impossible to make a voluntary settlement of property of this description " (e).

(2.) Personalty,—equitable interest in:—

As to personalty, there has been undoubtedly some uncertainty of opinion arising from the principle of the common law, only recently exploded by the Judicature Act, 1873; s. 25, sub-section 6,-"that choses in action are not assignable;" but since the case of Kekewich v. Manning (f), the doctrine laid down in Meek v. Kettlewell (g), which was supposed to conflict with the other cases, has been explained. and the weight of all recent authority tends to show that the rule in the case of equitable interests in personalty is the same as that which was pointed out with regard to equitable interests in realty in Gilbert v. Overton (h), viz., that the settlement will be upheld where the settlor has done all in his power to pass the property.

In Kekewich v. Manning (i), residuary estate, consist-Kekewich v. ing of money in the funds, was bequeathed to a mother personal and daughter, in trust for the mother for life, and after-estate, equitable interest wards for the daughter absolutely. By a settlement in, assignment made in contemplation of her marriage, the daughter of, by deed. assigned her interest under the will to trustees upon trust for the issue of the intended marriage, and in default for a niece of the daughter, and the issue of the niece. The daughter's husband died soon after the marriage, of which there was no issue. mother was not a party to the settlement, but had notice of it before the husband's death. Held, that Teven if the settlement was voluntary as regarded the

⁽e) But see Bridge v. Bridge, 16 Beav. 322.
(f) I De G. M. & G. 176.
(g) I Hare, 464.
(h) 2 H. & M. 116; May on Voluntary Conveyances, p. 409.
(i) Ubi supra.

trust in favour of the niecel it was a complete alienation, so as to be capable of enforcement at the instance of the trustees of the settlement, against the daughter, and against the trustees of another settlement, which she made on a second marriage, inconsistent with the former settlement. Knight Bruce, L. J., said,—"To state, however, a simple case—suppose stock or money to be legally vested in A. as a trustee for B., for life, and subject to B.'s life interest, for C. absolutely; surely it must be competent to C., in B.'s lifetime, with or without the consent of A., to make an effectual gift of C.'s interest to D., by way of mere bounty, leaving the legal interest and legal title unchanged and untouched. If so, can C. do this better or more effectually than by executing an assignment to D.?"

Donaldson v.
Donaldson,—
to same
effect.

In Donaldson v. Donaldson (j), it was held, that a voluntary assignment of the assignor's interest in a sum of stock standing in the names of trustees, such assignment being made by deed of trust in favour of volunteers, was a complete transfer of such interest, as between the donee and the representative of the donor, although no notice of the deed was given to the trustees in the donor's lifetime. Wood, V. C., said,—"The question is, in every case where there has been no declaration of trust, Has the assignor performed such acts that the donee can take advantage of them, without requiring any further act to be done by the assignor. and if the title is so far complete, this court will assist the donee in obtaining the property from any person who would be treated as a trustee for him? . . . In this case there is no need whatever for the donee to call in aid the jurisdiction of this court against the original assignor or his representatives. All that they

have to do, is to require the trustees who hold the fund, to transfer it to them "(k).

The relation of trustee and cestui que trust, may be Donor's intencreated in various ways, and we have seen that it may tute himself a arise by simple writing under hand signed by the party trustee may be gathered from declaring or directing the trust, or (but only as to pure conduct, without any personal estate) by mere word of mouth declaring or express decladirecting the same. And, further, as regards pure ration, as regards perpersonal estate, it is not essential even that there sonal estate at least. should be any express declaration or direction of trust. but the intention of the donor to constitue himself a trustee, or to direct a third person to hold upon trust, may be gathered from the mere conduct of the party, or the facts and circumstances of the case. Thus, in the recent case of Penfold v. Mould (1), a married woman entitled to certain sums of stock and cash standing in court to her separate account, consented that the same should be transferred to her husband. and afterwards retracted her consent. It was there argued, and the argument was approved by the court, that such consent might constitute a valid declaration of trust; but on the whole case it was decided, that a trust had not been created, inasmuch as it was competent for a married woman to retract her consent at any time before the transfer was actually completed.

The law as to voluntary trusts is thus summarised Milroy v. by Lord Justice Turner in Milroy v. Lord (m): "In mary of the order to render a voluntary settlement valid and effec-law. tual, the settlor must have done everything which, according to the nature of the property comprised in the settlement, was necessary to be done in order to transfer the property and render the settlement bind-

⁽k) See Re Way's Settlement, 13 W. R. 149.

⁽l) L. R. 4 Eq. 562.

⁽m) 4 De G. F. & J. 264.

ing upon him. He may, of course, do this by actually transferring the property to the persons for whom he intends to provide, and the provision will then be effectual; and it will be equally effectual, if he transfers the property to a trustee for the purposes of the settlement, or declares that he himself holds it in trust for those purposes; and if the property be personal, the trust may, as I apprehend, be declared either in writing or by parol.

(b.) Trust not actually executed,—
either (1) by direction to trustees, or
(2) by conveyance or assignment of equitable interest.

(b.) "But in order to render the settlement binding, one or other of these modes must, as I understand the law of this court, be resorted to, for there is no equity in this court to perfect an imperfect gift." Where, therefore, the facts show an intention to transfer property, and not to declare a trust, the court will not give effect to an imperfect transfer by treating it as a declaration of trust (n).

III. Fraudulent trusts, principally in relation to marriage. Thirdly,—A conveyance upon trust may (or may not) be fraudulent, and ineffectual (or effectual) accordingly. Further, various species of frauds, arising either at common law or under the provisions of particular statutes, have to be considered, and principally in connection with marriage settlements, in order to determine whether the settlement (being otherwise good and perfect) is to stand or fall. We propose to indicate the principal provisions of the statutes.

(a.) 13 Eliz., c. 5,—frauds under. (a.) By the statute 13 Eliz., c. 5, all covinous conveyances, gifts, alienations of lands or goods, whereby creditors might be in any wise disturbed, hindered, delayed, or defrauded of their just rights, are declared utterly void, but the act is not to extend to any estate or interest in lands, &c., on good consideration and bond

⁽n) Milroy v. Lord, 4 De G. F. & J. 264; Warriner v. Rogers, L. R. 16 Eq. 340; Richards v. Delbridge, 22 W. R. 584.

fide conveyed to any person not having notice of such covin.

This statute does not declare all voluntary convey- Settlement ances to be void, but only all fraudulent conveyances on good conto be void (o), and whether a conveyance be fraudulent sideration and bond fide. or not, is declared to depend upon its being made upon good consideration and bonâ fide. It is not sufficient that it be upon good consideration or bonâ fide. It must be both: and, therefore, if a conveyance or gift be defective in either particular, although it is valid between the parties and their representatives, yet it is utterly void as to creditors (p).

The word "voluntary" is not to be found in the Voluntary conveyances statute 13 Eliz., c. 5. A voluntary conveyance may not necessar ly therefore be made of real or personal property, without fraudulent under 13 any consideration whatever, and cannot be avoided, at Eliz., c. 5. least under that statute, by subsequent creditors unless it be of the description mentioned in the statute (q).

It was for some time thought that the mere fact of Settlor being indebted does the settlor being indebted at the time of his voluntary not per se inconveyance, was sufficient to invalidate that convey-veyance. ance under the statute in favour of creditors, and certain dicta of Lord Westbury, in Spirett v. Willows Doctrine in Spirett v. Wil-(r), were supposed to support that view. It was there lows stated. said, "that if the debt of the creditor by whom the voluntary conveyance is impeached existed at the date of the settlement, and it is shown that the remedy of the creditor is defeated or delayed by the existence of the settlement, it is immaterial whether the debtor was or was not solvent after making the settlement." His Lordship meant, of course, that, having shown so much,

⁽o) Holloway v. Millard, I Mad. 414.

⁽p) St. 353; but see Middleton v. Pollock, Ex parte Elliott, L. R. 2 Ch. Div. 104. (q) Holloway v. Millard, 1 Mad. 419.

⁽r) 3 De G. J. & S. 293; 34 L. J. Ch. 367.

you had shown enough, and it was not necessary to go on and show further that the settlor was also insolvent.

Freeman v.
Pope,—extension of decision
in Spirett v.
Willows.

The principle laid down in Spirett v. Willows has been reconsidered and approved, and also extended, in the recent case of Freeman v. Pope (s). The bill there was filed for the administration of the estate of A., and to set aside a voluntary settlement executed by him some years previous to his death, by a creditor whose claim had accrued since the date of the settlement. was proved that A. was perfectly solvent up to the date of the settlement, but that the effect of the settlement was to deprive him of the means of paying certain then existing debts. Lord Hatherley, in deciding against the validity of the settlement, after reviewing the authorities, stated the law to be that in the absence of direct proof of intention to defraud, if a person owing debts made a settlement which subtracted from the property which was the proper fund for payment of those debts, an amount without which the then existing debts could not be paid, then the law would presume an intention to defeat and delay creditors, such as to bring the case within the statute. words, the subsequent creditors, upon showing in effect that the money lent by them must have been applied towards paying the former creditors who were in existence at the date of the settlement, but had subsequently been paid off, were decided to have an equity to "stand in the shoes" of the previously existing creditor, for the purpose of impeaching the settlement.

What amount of indebtedness will raise presumption of fraudulent intent, within the meaning of 13 Eliz., c. 5.

The question as to what amount of indebtedness will raise the presumption of fraudulent intent, within the meaning of the statute 13 Eliz., c. 5, is one of evidence to be decided upon the facts of each case. Mere indebtedness will not suffice, nor, on the other

⁽s) L. R. 5 Ch. 538; and see Taylor v. Canen, L. R. 1 Ch. Div. 636.

hand, is it necessary to prove absolute insolvency. To quote the words of Lord Hatherley, when Vice-Chancellor, in Holmes v. Penney (t):-"The settlor must have been at the time not necessarily insolvent, but so largely indebted as to induce the court to believe that the intention of the settlement, taking the whole transaction together, was to defraud the persons who at the time of making the settlement were creditors of the settlor" (u). In other words, the settlor must either have been already insolvent, i.e., embarrassed, at the date of the settlement, or must have become immediately embarrassed in consequence thereof.

(b.) The statute 27 Eliz., c. 4, was enacted for the (b.) 27 Eliz., protection of purchasers, as the statute 13 Eliz., c. 5, c. 4,—frauds was for that of creditors. It enacts that every conveyance, grant, charge, lease, limitation of use, of, in, or out of any lands, tenements, or other hereditaments whatsoever, for the intent and purpose to defraud and deceive such persons, &c., as shall purchase the said lands, or any rent or profit out of the same, shall be deemed, but only as against such persons, their heirs. &c., who shall so purchase for money or any good consideration the said lands, &c., to be wholly void, frustrate, and of none effect.

A voluntary settlement of lands made in considera- voluntary tion of natural love and affection is void, as against a settlement void against subsequent purchaser of the same lands for valuable subsequent consideration, even though with notice (v), for the purchaser. very execution of a subsequent conveyance sufficiently evinces the fraudulent intent of the former one. voluntary settlement is, however, good as against the grantor, who therefore cannot compel specific perform-

⁽t) 3 K. & J. 90; Townsend v. Westacott, 2 Beav. 340. (u) See St. 362-365, where the English and the American decisions on this point are fully reviewed and compared. See also May on Voluntary Conveyances, 41-47. (v) Doc v. Manning, 9 East, 59.

ance of a subsequent contract for sale of lands so settled (w), though the purchaser from him can (x).

Chattels personal not within the statute.

Chattels personal, in which respect they differ from chattels real, are not within the statute 27 Eliz., c. 4, and, therefore, a voluntary settlement of chattels personal cannot be defeated by a subsequent sale (y). And even as regards chattels real, i.e., leasehold properties, the recent decisions tend to this result, that if the volunteer undertakes the onerous covenants comprised in the loan, he is not in fact a volunteer (z).

Purchaserwho.

A mortgagee (a), and likewise a lessee, is a purchaser within the meaning of the statute; but a judgment creditor is not so (b).

Subsequent purchase must be from the very settlor himself.

It has been decided not only that a bonâ fide purchaser for value from the heir-at-law or devisee of one who has made a voluntary conveyance is not within the statute, but also that a person who purchases for value from one claiming under a second voluntary conveyance, or from any other than the person who made the voluntary conveyance in his lifetime, is equally excluded from the benefit of the statute (c).

Bona fide purchaser under 13 Eliz., c. 5, and 27 Eliz., c. 4.

In 27 Eliz., c. 4, s. 4, there is a proviso, similar to that in 13 Eliz., c. 5, s. 5, in favour of a bonâ fide purchaser, that that Act shall not extend to or be construed to defeat any conveyances, &c., of lands made upon or for good consideration, and bona fide to any person.

(x) Daking v. Whimper, 26 Beav. 568.

⁽w) Smith v. Garland, 2 Mer. 123.

⁽y) Bill v. Cureton, 2 My. & K. 503; M'Donnell v. Hesilrige, 16 Beav. 346.

⁽z) Saunders v. Dehew, 2 Vern. 272; Price v. Jenkins, L. R. 4 Ch. Div. 483; Gale v. Gale, L. R. 6. Ch. Div. 144. See also Ex parte Doble, in re Doble, 26 W. R. 407; Ex parte Hillman, in re Pumfrey, 10 Ch. Div. 622.

⁽a) Chapman v. Emery, Cowp. 279; Cracknall v. Janson, II Ch. Div. 1.

⁽b) Beavan v. Earl of Oxford, 6. De. G. M. & G. 507. (c) Doe v. Rusham, 17 Q. B. 723; Lewis v. Rees, 3 K. & J. 132; Richards v. Lewis, 11 C. B. 1035; General Meat Supply Association v. Bouffler, W. N. 1879, 26.

Bona fide purchasers are such as take bona fide, Bona fide purand for a valuable consideration. And this leads us to the chasers, definition of the inquiry, What is a valuable consideration under this statute? Lawful considerations generally may be divided into two classes:---

- I. Meritorious or good considerations import a con-Considerations sideration of blood or natural affection, as when a man are either (r.) Meritogrants an estate to a near relation; or they are founded rious; merely upon motives of generosity, prudence, and natural duty. Such considerations standing alone will not avail to support a conveyance as against a subsequent purchaser for value.
- 2. Valuable considerations are money, marriage, or or (2.) the like, which the law esteems an equivalent for Valuable. money.

The consideration of marriage has always been re- Marriage concognised by courts of law and equity as a valuable sideration under 27 Eliz., one; and previous to the Statute of Frauds a mere c. 4 promise by the intended husband to settle property upon the intended wife was upheld by the subsequent marriage. The Statute of Frauds, 29 Car. II., c. 3, s. 4, did not change the principle, but only required an additional circumstance by way of evidence,—that such ante-nuptial agreement should be in writing, in order that it should bind the husband, or other the party signing it. In the case, therefore, of an antenuptial agreement followed by marriage, the wife becomes a purchaser within the statute 27 Eliz., c. 4 (d).

It appears also that a post-nuptial settlement, made Post-nuptial in pursuance of an ante-nuptial parol agreement, is good settlement in pursuance of as against a subsequent purchaser for value although ante-nuptial

without notice, under the 27 Eliz., c. 4 (e); although a mere post-nuptial settlement, without any ante-nuptial agreement, is void under that statute as against a subsequent purchaser for value, even with notice (f).

Bond fide post-nuptial settlement supported on slight consideration.

But though a post-nuptial voluntary settlement made by the husband or wife, and not in pursuance of ante-nuptial agreement, is within the provisions of the 27 Eliz., c. 4, and is void against a subsequent purchaser of that estate, still a court of equity is willing to support such a post-nuptial settlement on very slight consideration. Thus, in Hewison v. Negus (g), it was decided that if the wife's real estate, of which her husband would be entitled to receive the rents and profits during her coverture, be settled by post-nuptial settlement on her for life, for her separate use, &c., with remainder to the children, the post-nuptial settlement is not void under the 27 Eliz., c. 4, as against a subsequent purchaser from the husband and wife. "I concur." said the Master of the Rolls, " with the argument which was urged, that the surrender by the husband of his right to receive the rents and profits of the hereditaments during coverture, and his giving his wife a sole and exclusive power and control over them, is a valuable consideration sufficient to support this settlement." The husband was a purchaser on behalf of his children, giving up his own life estate, in consideration of the estates limited to his children. And, semble, a bonâ fide post-nuptial settlement of leasehold properties, subject to onerous covenants, is not a voluntary settlement (h).

⁽e) Dundas v. Dutens, 2 Cox, 235; Spurgeon v. Collier, 1 Eden. 55; Warden v. Jones, 2 De G. & Jo. 76; and see the principle in Bailey v. Sweeting, 9 C. B., N.S., 843; 30 L. J. C.P. 150. But see Trowell v. Shenton, 8 Ch. Div. 318.

(f) Butterfield v. Heath, 15 Beav. 408; Warden v. Jones, 2 De G. &

Jo. 76.

⁽g) 16 Beav. 594; and see Bayspoole v. Collins, L. R. 6 Ch. app. 228; Teasdale v. Braithwaite, L. R. 4 Ch. Div. 85, and 5 Ch. Div. 630; In re Foster v. Lister, L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 87.

(h) Ex parte Doble, in re Doble, 26 W. R. 407, affirmed and explained in Ex parte Hillman, in re Pumfrey, 10 Ch. Div. 622.

And conversely, even an ante-nuptial voluntary Mald fide præsettlement, for which the marriage is the sole consideration on the part of the wife, will not be supported supported. as against a subsequent purchaser, if the marriage is in effect no consideration emanating from the wife. Thus. in Colombine v. Penhall (i), a gentleman went through a valid ceremony of marriage with a female who had previously given herself to him in concubinage for a period of years; and he settled considerable property upon her prior to and in purported consideration of the marriage. The court being, however, of opinion that the female in question had not given, as a consideration for the marriage, anything she had not already previously given for nothing or for some other consideration, and that she was aware of the real character of the transaction, set aside the settlement as fraudulent against a subsequent purchaser.

(c.) A very factitious and artificial species of fraud (c.) The Bills (c.) A very factitious and artificial species of fraud (c.) fine bins was introduced for the protection of creditors, but not 1854, 17 & 18 of subsequent mortgagees, lessees, or purchasers, by the Vict., c. 36,—frauds under. Bills of Sale Act, 1854, which was amended by the Bills of Sale Act, 1866 (j), both which Acts have been repealed by the Bills of Sale Act, 1878 (k), but their provisions in effect re-enacted with some important variations. Under the Bills of Sale Act, 1878 (k), it has been enacted in effect as follows:-That every bill of sale of personal chattels made on or after the 1st January 1879, whereby, whether the same be absolute or conditional, or subject or not subject to any trust. the grantee or holder thereof shall have power, either with notice or without notice, and either as from or at any future time after the execution of the bill of sale. to seize or take possession of any personal chattels

⁽i) I Sm. & Giff. 228; see also Bulmer v. Hunter, L. R., 8 Eq. 46. (j) 17 & 18 Vict., c. 36; 29 & 30 Vict., c. 96. (k) 41 & 42 Vict., c. 31.

comprised in or subject to such bill shall be, as against the trustee in bankruptcy, general assignees, and execution creditors of the grantor, void to all intents and purposes, to the extent of such part of the property therein comprised as consists of personal chattels being in the possession or apparent possession of the grantor, at or after the date of the bankruptcy, general assignment, or execution (as the case may be), and after seven days from such date, unless the following requisites of the Act have been complied with, viz.—

1. The bill of sale (including the schedule thereto, if any), or a true copy thereof, is to be filed with the docquets or judgments clerk in the Queen's Bench Division within seven days from the execution of the bill of sale.

2. An affidavit stating—

- (a.) The time of making the bill of sale, and the due execution thereof;
- (b.) The residence and occupation of the maker thereof; and
- (c.) The residences and occupations of the witnesses attesting the bill, one of whom must be a solicitor,

is at the same time with filing the bill of sale (l), and within seven days from the execution thereof, to be filed in like manner as the bill of sale itself.

And every such bill of sale as aforesaid is to be re-registered every five years.

By the interpretation clause of the Act, a bill of

⁽¹⁾ Grindell v. Brendon, 6 C. B., N.S. 698.

sale is extended to include assignments and all other assurances of personal chattels, and also licences or other authorities (including attornments and agreements under which any right arises) to take possession of personal chattels as security for a debt; and personal chattels are extended to include goods, furniture, and also such fixtures in general as are removable by a tenant at or before the expiration of his lease.

The Act of 1878, like the Bills of Sale Acts, 1854 & 1866, expressly exempts marriage settlements from their operation; but this exemption extends only to ante-nuptial and not also to post-nuptial settlements (m). But the 20th section of the Act expressly provides, that the chattels comprised in a bill of sale which has been and continues to be duly registered under the Act, shall not be deemed to be in the possession, order, or disposition of the grantor of the bill within the meaning of the Bankruptcy Act, 1869.

(d.) By the Bankruptcy Act, 1869 (n), s. 91, the (d.) The Bankfollowing provisions have been made, but with reference 1869, s. 91, only to post-nuptial settlements, and in the case of these frauds under. even, only when made by traders; that is to say-

- I. With reference to the husband's property in his own right,—(1.) Any post-nuptial settlement made within two years of the subsequent bankruptcy of the settlor is, ipso facto, void upon the bankruptcy (scil., as against the trustee in the bankruptcy).
- (2.) Any post-nuptial settlement made within ten years of the subsequent bankruptcy of the settlor, and outside the first two of such ten years, is also void upon the bankruptcy (scil., as against the trustee in the bankruptcy), unless and until the settlor proves that

⁽m) Ashton v. Blackshaw, L. R. 9 Eq. 510. See also Brown's Law Dictionary-title, Fraudulent Gifts. (n) 32 & 33 Vict., c. 71.

the same was not in fact fraudulent as against his creditors.

II. With reference to the husband's property in right of his wife,—Any post-nuptial settlement on the wife and children of the settlor is good (no matter how soon the bankruptcy of the settlor may come about), provided it be of property that has accrued to him through his wife during the coverture.

Also by the same Act and the same section thereof, it is provided that all ante-nuptial covenants and contracts by a trader to settle property yet to be acquired, shall be void upon the trader's subsequent bankruptcy, unless prior to such bankruptcy the property referred to has been both acquired, and also in fact settled pursuant to the covenant or contract (o).

Who are within the scope of the marriage consideration.

There have been some cases in which the question has been, how far the consideration of marriage will extend, and whether limitations in favour of very remote objects may not be void as against subsequent purchasers. A limitation to the issue of the settlor by a second marriage was held *not* to be voluntary (p). So a settlement on her marriage, made by a woman of her property, as a provision for her illegitimate child, was upheld as against a subsequent mortgagee (q). But a limitation to the brothers of a settlor was held voluntary (r).

But limitations in favour of collaterals will be sup-

(r) Johnson v. Legard, 6 M. & S. 60; Stackpoole v. Stackpoole, 4 Dru. & Warr. 320.

⁽o) Ex parte Bishop, in re Tönnies, L. R. 8 Ch. App. 718. See Brown's Law Dictionary—title, Fraudulent Gifts.

⁽p) Clayton v. E. of Winton, 3 Mad. 302 n.; Newstead v. Searles, I Atk. 265.

⁽q) Clark v. Wright, 6 H. & N. 849; see Price v. Jenkins, L. R. 4 Ch. Div. 483; Gale v. Gale, L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 144.

ported if there be any party to the settlement who purchases on their behalf (s).

Fourthly,—Conveyances upon trust may be upon trust IV. Trusts in for creditors. And to the general rule that a declara-favour of creditors, tion of trust in favour of volunteers by the legal or revocable, as a general rule. equitable owner of realty or of personalty is irrevocable, there is an important exception in the class of cases where a debtor, without the knowledge of his creditors, makes a transfer of property to trustees for payment of Such a transaction does not invest creditors with the character of cestui que trusts, but amounts merely to a direction to the trustees as to the mode Amounts to a in which they are to apply the property vested in mere direction to trustees as them, for the benefit of the owner of the property, the to mode of disposition. debtor, who alone stands to them in the relation of cestui que trust, and can vary or revoke the trusts at pleasure (t). In Walwyn v. Coutts (u), a father conveved his estates to trustees for paying off annuities granted by his son, together with the arrears, and also his son's debts, if they thought proper. The annuitants were mentioned in a schedule, but were neither parties nor privies to the deed. The father and son then executed other deeds varying the former trusts. motion by one of the scheduled creditors to restrain the trustees from executing the trusts of the subsequent deeds until they performed the trusts of the first was refused

So again in Garrard v. Lauderdale (v), it was held that an assignment of personal property to trustees, for payment of certain scheduled creditors who did not execute the deed or conform to its terms, although the execution of the deed had been communicated to them,

⁽s) Heap v. Tonge, 9 Hare, 104; Pulvertoft v. Pulvertoft, 18 Ves. 92. See also Brown's Law Dictionary-title, Marriage Settlement.

⁽t) May on Voluntary Conveyances, p. 397.

⁽u) 3 Sim. 14.

⁽v) 3 Sim. I.

could not be enforced by the non-executing and nonconforming creditors. So far from conforming to its terms, the plaintiff had come in under a decree made in a suit for the administration of the debtor's estate, and had proved his debt before the master in such suit after the receipt of the letter informing him of the conveyance to the trustees. In the judgment it was said-"I take the real nature of the deed to be, not so much a conveyance vesting a trust in A. for the benefit of the creditors of the grantor, but rather an for the debtor's arrangement made by the debtor for his own personal convenience and accommodation—for the payment of his own debts in an order prescribed by himself, over which he retains power and control, and with respect to which the creditors can have no right to complain, inasmuch as they are not injured by it-they waive no right of action, and are not executing parties to it."

And is an arrangement and convenience.

> In Acton v. Woodgate (w), the debtor made two conveyances; the first was not communicated to any creditor except the trustees, who were also creditors; the second conveyance was made to the same trustees for the payment of their own debts, and of all other debts due by the debtor, and was executed by several creditors who were not privy to the first. The trusts of the second conveyance were decreed to be carried into execution. In the judgment the following remarks were made: "It is established by the authorities which have been referred to, that if a debtor conveys property in trust for the benefit of his creditors to whom the conveyance is not communicated, and the creditors are not in any manner privy to the conveyance, the deed merely operates as a power to the trustees, which is revocable by the debtor, and has the same effect as if the debtor had delivered money to an agent to pay his

creditors, and before any payment made by the agent, or communication made by him to the creditors, had recalled the money so delivered."

The learned judge then proceeds to say,-" In the Effect of comcase of Garrard v. Lauderdale, it seems to have been munication to creditors considered that a communication by the trustees to followed by creditors, of the fact of such a trust, would not defeat faith of the the power of revocation by the debtor. It appears to deed. me, however, that this doctrine is questionable, because the creditors, being aware of such a trust, might be thereby induced to a forbearance in respect of their claims which they would not otherwise have exercised."

There has been a considerable conflict of dicta, or apparent conflict, as to whether the mere fact of communication of a trust in favour of creditors to such creditors, will deprive the donor of that power of revocation, which it has been shown he possesses. is submitted that the true principle is correctly laid down by Sir John Leach, M.R., in Acton v. Woodgate (x), and that the trust, after communication, is irrevocable. if the creditors have been "thereby induced to a forbearance in respect of their claims which they would not have otherwise exercised," or in the words of Sir J. Romilly, M. R., in Biron v. Mount (y), "The principle is well laid down by Lord St. Leonards in Field v. Donoughmore (z), where he states, 'It is not absolutely Forbearance essential that the creditor should execute the deed; if should be evidenced by he has assented to it, and if he has acquiesced in it, or some positive acted under its provisions and complied with its terms. act. and the other side express no dissatisfaction, the settled law of the court is that he is entitled to its benefits.' About that I entertain no doubt, but I apprehend for this purpose he must do some acts which amount to

⁽x) 2 My. & K. 495.

⁽z) I Dru. & War. 227.

⁽y) 24 Beav. 649.

acquiescence. It is not sufficient merely to stand by and take no part at all in the matter. It is true that in some cases, as is said in the case of Nicholson v. Tutin (a), something may be inferred from his standing by, until he has lost a remedy which he might have had at law, if he had not come in under the deed. But no such question arises here. In my opinion, he must do some act "(b).

Effect of the creditor being a party to the deed.

Where a creditor is party to a deed whereby his debtor conveys property to a trustee to be applied in liquidation of the debts due to that creditor, the deed is as to that creditor irrevocable (c).

A creditor who for a long time delays (d), or sets up a title adverse to the deed (e), will not be allowed to claim the benefit of its provisions; as neither will any creditor to whom the existence of the deed has never been communicated, semble (f).

V. Equitable Assignments. Closely allied with the subject of assignments to trustees in favour of creditors, is that of equitable assignments, so called, directly to creditors.

General rule of the old common law. "The great wisdom and policy of the sages and founders of our law," says Lord Coke, "have provided that no possibility, right, title, nor thing in action, shall be granted or assigned to strangers; for that would be the occasion of multiplying of contentions and suits, of great oppression of the people, and the

⁽a) 2 K. & J. 23.

⁽b) Kirwan v. Ďaniel, 5 Hare, 499; Griffith v. Ricketts, 7 Hare, 307; Cornthwaite v. Frith, 4 De G. & Sm. 552; Siggers v. Evans, 5 Ell. & B. 367.

⁽c) Mackinnon v. Stewart, I Sim. N.S. 88; La Touche v. Earl of Lucan, 7 C. & F. 772; Monteflore v. Brown, 7 H. L. Cas. 241-266.

⁽d) Gould v. Robertson, 4 De G. & Sm. 509.

⁽e) Watson v. Knight, 19 Beav. 369. (f) Johns v. James, 8 Ch. Div. 744.

subversion of the due and equal execution of justice."

The reasons given by Lord Coke for this rule of law Respects in which prevents the assignment of a possibility or chose which equity infringed upon in action, have been almost wholly disregarded by courts the rule of the of equity; and, accordingly, from a very early period, law. assignments of a mere naked possibility, or of a chose in action, for valuable consideration, have been held valid in equity, which will carry them into effect upon the same principle that it enforces the performance of an agreement, when not contrary to its own rules or public policy (g). A mere expectancy, therefore, as that of an heir-at-law to the estate of an ancestor (h), or the interest which a person may take under the will of another then living (i), non-existing property to be acquired at a future time, as the future cargo of a ship (i), is assignable in equity for valuable consideration; and where the expectancy has fallen into possession, the assignment will be enforced (k).

Even the common law has in modern times broken Respects in in upon the old rule, prohibiting the assignment of which the common law choses in action, as in the case of negotiable instru-even has in-fringed upon ments, and some few other securities, or where a its own rule. debtor assents to the transfer of the debt, so as to enable the assignee to maintain a direct action against him, on the implied promise which results from such assent (l). And in the case of assignments of bonds or other debts which are an exception to the abovementioned rule, it is necessary to sue in the name of the original creditor; the person to whom it is trans-

⁽g) Squib v. Wyn, 1 P. Wms. 378.
(h) Hobson v. Trevor, 2 P. W. 191.

⁽i) Bennett v. Cooper, 9 B-av. 252. (j) Lindsay v. Gibbs, 22 Beav. 522. (k) Holroyd v. Marshall, 10 H. L. Cas. 191. (1) Baron v. Husband, 4 B. & Ad. 611.

ferred being regarded rather as an attorney than as an assignee (m).

Contingent interests and possibilities.

By 8 & 9 Vict., c. 106, s. 6, contingent and future interests and possibilities, coupled with an interest in real estate, may now be granted or assigned in law; this Act, it will be observed, does not render assignments of contingent interests or possibilities in chattels, or mere naked possibilities not coupled with an interest, valid at law; the exclusive jurisdiction, therefore, of courts of equity, as to such assignments, is untouched by the Act.

Policies of life and marine insurance.

By 30 & 31 Vict., c. 144, policies of life assurance may be legally assigned in the form provided by the Act, either by endorsement on the policy, or by separate instrument; and by 31 & 32 Vict., c. 86, policies of marine insurance may similarly be assigned by endorsement in statutory form. Lastly, by the Judicature Act, 1873 (n), s. 25, sub-sect. 6, debts and other legal choses in action, without any distinction, may now be assigned at law, where the assignment is absolute, and not by way of charge only; but the assignment is subject to all equities affecting the assignor.

Debts and other legal choses in action under Supreme Court of Judicature Act.

These enactments are in effect statutory recognitions of a doctrine long since acted upon in the Court of Chancery. For in equity, an order given by a debtor Order given by to his creditor upon a third person having funds of the debtor, to pay the creditor out of such funds, has a third person, always been considered a binding equitable assignment or (speaking accurately) appropriation of so much money.

debtor to his creditor upon a good equitable assignment, i.e., appropriation.

Thus, in Burn v. Carvalho (o), A. having goods in

⁽m) De Pothonier v. De Mattos, Ell. Bl. & Ell. 467.

⁽n) 36 & 37 Vict., c. 66. (o) 4 My, & Cr. 690.

the hands of B. as his agent at a foreign port, and being under liabilities to C., by letter to C. promised that he would direct, and, by a subsequent letter to B., did direct B. to deliver over the goods to D. as the agent of C. at that port. Before the delivery of the goods, a commission of bankrupt issued against A. under an act of bankruptcy committed while his letter was on its way to B., and the goods were delivered by B. to D. in ignorance of the bankruptcy. *Held*, that C. had a good title in equity to the goods.

Again, in Diplock v. Hammond (p), A. having obtained a loan from B., gave him the following instrument addressed to his (A.'s) debtor:—"I hereby authorise you to pay £365, being the amount of my contract, B. having advanced me that sum." Held a valid equitable assignment (q).

A mere mandate from a principal to his agent, not Mandate from communicated to a third person, will give him no right agent,—conor interest in the subject of the mandate. It may be for any engagement is executed, or at least ditor. before any engagement is entered into with a third person to execute it for his benefit (r). Such a mandate is clearly no appropriation or equitable assignment of property in favour of a creditor. Thus, in Rodick v. Gandell (s), a railway company was indebted to the defendant, their engineer, who was greatly indebted to his bankers. The bankers having pressed for payment or security, the defendant, by letter to the solicitors of the company, authorised them to receive the money due to him from the company, and requested them to pay it to the bankers. The solicitors, by letter, promised

⁽p) 2 Sm. & G. 141; 5 De G. M. & G. 320. (q) Farguhar v. City of Toronto, 12 Gr. 186. (r) Morrell v. Wootten, 16 Beav. 197.

⁽s) I De G. M. & G. 763. And see Ex parte Hall, in re Whitting, 10 Ch. Div. 615.

the bankers to pay them such money, on raising it. Held, that this did not amount to an equitable assignment of the debt. "The extent of the principle," said Lord Truro, "to be deduced from the cases is, that an agreement between a debtor and a creditor that the debt owing shall be paid out of a specific fund coming to the debtor, or an order given by a debtor to his creditor upon a person owing money or holding funds belonging to the giver of the order, directing such person to pay such funds to the creditor, will create a valid equitable charge upon such fund; in other words, will operate as an equitable assignment of the debts or fund to which the order refers. I think that a decision, that the authority to the solicitors contained in the letter, to receive the debt due from the railway company, and to pay what should be received to the bank, operated as an assignment in equity of the railway debt, would be to extend the principle much beyond the warrant of the authorities. If an assignment of the debts had been intended, it would have been quite as easy to have directed the order to the railway company as to the solicitors. It rather seems to have been intended that the bank should have no title or interest in the debts until the amount of the debts should have been ascertained, and some definite portion been adjusted and realised."

Notice to legal holder by assignee of chose in action necessary to perfect title,—as against third person.

In order that third parties may be bound, it is necessary, with regard to a chose in action, for the assignee, to do all that can be done to perfect the assignment, to do everything towards having possession, which the subject admits; to do "that which is tantamount to obtaining possession by placing every person who has an equitable or legal interest in the matter under an obligation to treat it as his property. For this purpose he must give notice to the legal holder of the fund: in the case of a debt, for instance, notice to the debtor is for many purposes tantamount

to possession. If he omit to give that notice, he is Such notice guilty of the same degree and species of neglect as he is tantamount to possession. who leaves a personal chattel to which he has acquired a title, in the actual possession, and under the absolute control, of another person." Notice, then, is necessary to perfect the title, to give a complete right in rem, and not merely a right as against him who And gives a conveys his interest. If the assignee is willing to right in rem. trust the personal credit of the man, and is satisfied that he will make no improper use of the possession in which he is allowed to remain, notice is not necessary, for against him the title is perfect without notice. But if he, availing himself of the possession as a means of obtaining credit, induces third persons to purchase from him as the actual owner, and they part with their money before the assignee's pocket-conveyance is notified to them, the assignee must be postponed. On being postponed, the assignee's security is not invalidated; he had priority, but that priority has not been followed up; he has permitted another to acquire a better title to the legal possession (t). Where an assignee has done all in his power towards taking possession, he will not lose his priority (u).

The assignee of a chose in action, although without Assignee of notice, in general takes it subject to all the equities action takes which subsist against the assignor. Thus, in Turton subject to equities. v. Benson (v), where a son on his marriage was to have from his mother, as a portion with his wife, exactly as much as his intended father-in-law should allow to his daughter, and privately, without notice to his mother, who treated for the marriage, gave a bond to the wife's father to pay back £ 1000 of the wife's portion seven

⁽t) Ryall v. Rowles, 2 L. C. 729; Dearle v. Hall, 3 Russ. 1; In re Freshfield's Trust, 11 Ch. Div. 198; Buller v. Plunkett, 1 J. & H. 441. (u) Feltham v. Clark, I De G. & Sm. 307; Langton v. Horton, I

Hare, 549.
(v) 1 P. Wms. 496; and see Judicature Act, 1873, 36 & 37 Vict.,

years after, in consideration that the father-in-law should make the wife's portion £3000, instead of (as he had intended) £2000 only; and the bond was afterwards assigned for the benefit of the creditors of the father-in-law; it was held that the bond being void in equity in the hands of the father-in-law could not be made better by the assignment (w), in the hands of the creditors, although taken without notice of the son's fraud.

But though this rule generally holds good, it has been

Exception as to negotiable

instruments.

And as to debentures payable to bearer.

observed that length of time and other circumstances may make the case of the assignee stronger (x); and further, the equities affecting the assignor must be in respect of the very chose in action itself; and, moreover, an exception to the rule occurs in the case of negotiable instruments, "because if the rule were otherwise," Lord Keeper Somers observed, "it would tend to destroy trade, which is carried on everywhere by bills of exchange, and he would not lessen an honest creditor's security" (y). And the rule will yield in equity where a contrary intention appears from the nature and terms of the contract between the original contracting parties. Thus, debentures made payable to bearer were hell to bind the company issuing them, in the hands of transferees for value, irrespective of any equities between the company and the original holders (z).

And it is expressly provided by the Supreme Court Assignment of

⁽w) Barnett v. Sheffield, I De G. M. & G. 371; Athenaum Life Assurance Society v. Pooley, 3 De G. & Jo. 294; Graham v. Johnson, L. R. 8

⁽x) Hill v. Caillovel, I Ves. Sr. 123; Ex parte Chorley, L. R. II Eq. 157. (y) Anon. Com. Rep. 43; and see Beckervaise v. Lewis, L. R. 7 C. P.

⁽z) In re Blakeley Ordinance Company, L. R. 3 Ch. App. 154. In re General Estates Company, ib. 758. But see Crouch v. Credit Foncier of England, L. R. 8 Q. B. 374.

of Judicature Act, 1873, "that an absolute assignment debts and legal in writing under the hand of the assignor (not pur- choses in action under porting to be by way of charge only) of any debt or 37 & 38 Vict., c. 66, s. 25, § 6. other legal chose in action, of which express notice in writing shall have been given to the debtor, trustee, or other person, from whom the assignor would have been entitled to receive or claim such debt or chose in action, shall be and be deemed to have been effectual in law (subject to all equities which would have been entitled to priority over the right of the assignee if this Act had not passed) to pass and transfer the legal right to such debt or chose in action from the date of such notice, and all legal and other remedies for the same, and the power to give a good discharge for the same without the concurrence of the assignor (a).

As in the case of agreements, a court of equity will Assignments not, upon the ground of public policy, give effect to contrary to public policy. assignments of pensions and salaries of public officers. payable to them for the purpose of keeping up the dignity of their office, or to assure a due discharge of their official duties. Thus the pay of an officer in the army (b), and the salary of a judge given to him to support the dignity of his office, have been held not assignable; but, semble, such assignments are valid when the office is a sinecure or the duties have ceased (c).

Courts of equity, on principles of public policy, will Assignments not give effect to assignments which partake of the affected by champerty nature of champerty, or maintenance, or buying of pre- and maintenance. tended titles (d). Thus, in Stevens v. Bagwell (e), one-

⁽a) Brice v. Bannister, 3 Q. B. D. 569.
(b) Stone v. Lidderale, 2 Aust. 533.
(c) Arbuthnot v. Norton, 5 Moore's P. C. C. 219; Grenfell v. The Dean and Canons of Windsor, 2 Beav. 550; Willcock v. Terrell, 3 Exch. Div. 323.

⁽d) Reynell v. Sprye, I De G. M. & G. 660.

⁽e) 15 Ves. 139.

fifth part of the share of prize money, the subject of a suit then depending in the Admiralty Court, was assigned by the executrix of one of the captors, and her husband, to a navy agent, in consideration of his indemnifying them from all costs on account of any suit touching the said prize money, and paying to them the remaining four-fifths, if it should be recovered. Held, that the assignment was void as amounting to that species of maintenance which is called champerty, viz., the unlawful maintenance of a suit in consideration of a bargain for part of the thing, or some profit out of it (f).

Upon the same principle of not giving any encouragement to litigation, especially when undertaken as a speculation, equity will not enforce the assignment of a mere naked right to litigate, i.e., which, from its very nature, is incapable of conferring any benefit except through the medium of a suit, such as a mere naked right to set aside a conveyance for fraud (g).

Purchase pendente lite. where permitted.

But the purchase of an interest pendente lite (h), or a mortgage pendente lite (i), or the advance of money for carrying on a suit, if the parties have a common interest (i), or if there exists between the parties the relation of father and son (k), or master and servant (l), will not be considered as maintenance or champerty (m). Moreover, a purchase from the defendant is always valid, he having the possession, and therefore something more than a mere right of action.

⁽f) Eearle v. Hopwood, 9 C. B. (N.S.) 566. (g) Prosser v. Edmonds, I Y. & C. Exch. Ca. 481; Powell v. Knowler, 2 Atk. 226; In re Paris Skating Rink Co., L. R. 5 Ch. Div. 959.

⁽h) Knight v. Bowyer, 2 De G. & Jo. 421, 455. (i) Cockell v. Taylor, 15 Beav. 103, 117. (j) Hunter v. Daniel, 4 Hare, 420.

⁽k) Burke v. Greene, 2 Ball & B. 521. (l) Wallis v. D. of Portland, 3 Ves. 503. (m) Dickinson v. Burrell, 14 W. R. 412.

A purchase by an attorney pendente lite, of the subject matter of the suit is invalid (n); and an undischarged bankrupt's assignment of his expectation of a surplus, in the administration of his estate, does not confer on the assignee any right to interfere in that administration (o).

Sixthly,—It remains to consider the constituents of a vi. Trusts,—valid trust, or the elements required for its creation. how created. Now, no particular form of expression is necessary to the creation of a trust, if, on the whole, it can be gathered that a trust was intended. There are many cases, arising chiefly under wills, in which it is very difficult to determine whether or not a trust was intended to be created. "As a general rule," observes Lord Langdale, "it has been laid down that when property is given absolutely to any person, and the same person is by the giver who has power to command, recommended, or entreated, or wished to dispose of that property in favour of another, the recommendation, entreaty, or wish shall be held to create a trust:—

"First, If the words are so used that on the whole The three they ought to be construed as imperative or certain;

" Secondly, If the subject matter of the recommendation or wish be certain.

"Thirdly, If the objects or persons intended to have the benefit of the recommendation or wish be also certain.

"For example,—If a testator gives £1000 to A.,

⁽n) Simpson v. Lamb, 7 Ell. & Bl. 84; Anderson v. Radcliffe, 6 Jur. N.S. 578.
(o) Ex parte Sheffield, in re Austin, 10 Ch. Div. 434.

desiring, wishing, recommending, or hoping that A. will, at his death, give the same sum, or any part of it to B. it is considered that B. is an object of the testator's bounty, and A. a trustee for him. No question arises on the intention of the testator, upon the sum or subject intended to be given, or upon the person or object of the wish.

"So, again, if a testator gives the residue of his estate, after certain purposes are answered, to A., recommending A., after his death, to give it to his own relations, or such of his own relations as he shall think most deserving, or as he shall choose, it has been considered that the residue of the property, though a subject to be ascertained, and the relations to be selected, though persons or objects to be ascertained, are nevertheless so clearly and certainly ascertainable, so capable of being made certain, that the rule is applicable to such cases, and that a valid trust is created.

No trust if of any one or more of the "three certainties."

"On the other hand, if the giver accompanies his there is a want expression of wish or request by other words from which it is to be collected that he did not intend the wish to be imperative; or if it appears from the context that the first taker was intended to have a discretionary power to withdraw any indefinite part of the subject from the object of the wish or request; or if the objects are not such as may be ascertained with sufficient certainty, it has been held that no trust is created. Thus, the words 'free and unfettered,' accompanying the strongest expression of request, were held to prevent the words of request being imperative. Any words by which it is expressed, or from which it may be implied, that the first taker may apply any indefinite part of the subject to his own use, are held to prevent the subject of the gift from being considered certain; and a vague description of the object, that is, a description by which the giver neither clearly defines the object himself, nor names a distinct class out of which the first taker is to select, or which leaves it doubtful what interests the objects are to take, will prevent the object from being certain within the meaning of the rule, and in such cases we are told that the question 'never turns upon the grammatical import of words they may be imperative, but not necessarily so; the subject-matter, the situation of the parties, and the probable intent, must be considered (p)."

Firstly, The words of recommendation used must be (1.) Recommensuch that, upon the whole, they ought to be construed imperative, as imperative. No technical words are necessary, but i.e., certain. the testator's intent is to be carried out, and his words "willing or desiring" that the person on whom he has conferred property should make a disposition of it in favour of certain objects, if reasonably certain, will be construed as imperative, and amount to a trust; as also the words and phrases "wish and request (q)," "have fullest confidence (r)," "heartily beseech (s)," "well know (t)," " of course he will give (u)."

Secondly, The subject matter of the recommendation (2.) Subjector wish must be certain. Thus in Buggins v. Yates (v), be certain. where a testator, who, having devised real property to his wife to be sold for payment of his debts and legacies in aid of his personal estate, declared that he did not doubt but his wife would be kind to his children, it was

⁽p) Knight v. Knight, 3 Beav. 172; 11 C. & F. 513; Meggison v. Moore, 2 Ves. Jr. 632; Bernard v. Minshull, Johnson, 276; In re Bond,

Cole v. Hawes, L. R., 4 Ch. Div. 238.
(q) Godfrey v. Godfrey, 11 W. R. 554; Liddard v. Liddard, 28 Beav. 266.

⁽r) Shovelton v. Shovelton, 32 Beav. 143. But see Lambe v. Eames, L. R. 6 Ch. App. 597; Hutchinson v. Tennant, 8 Ch. Div. 540; Dawkins v. Lord Penrhyn, 4 App. Ca. 51.

⁽s) Meredith v. Hencage, 1 Sim. 553. (t) Bardswell v. Bardswell, 9 Sim. 319.

⁽u) Robinson v. Smith, Mad. & Geld. 194.

⁽v) 9 Mod. 122.

insisted on that this constituted a trust of the personal estate; but the court was of opinion that these words gave a right to no child in particular, or a right to any particular part of the estate, but that the clause was void for uncertainty.

Again, in Curtis v. Rippon (w), the testator, after appointing his wife guardian of his children, give all his property to her, "trusting that she would, in fear of God, and in love to the children committed to her care, make such use of it as should be for her own and their spiritual and temporal good, remembering always, according to circumstances, the Church of God and the poor." Held, that the wife was absolutely entitled to the property; and there being no ascertained part of it provided for the children, and the wife being at liberty at her pleasure to diminish the capital either for the Church or the poor, that the plain intention of the testator was to leave the children dependent on the wife.

Where there is an absolute gift of property to a person, and a recommendation to give to a certain object "what shall be left" at his death, "or what he shall die possessed of," the subject will be considered uncertain (x).

The object must be certain.

Thirdly, The objects or persons intended to have the benefit of the recommendation or wish must be certain. Thus, in Sale v. Moore (y), where a testator bequeathed the residue of his property to his wife, not doubting that she would consider his near relations as he would have done if he had survived her. The V. C. held that the objects were uncertain. "Who were the objects of the trust? Did the testator," he asked, "mean re-

⁽w) 5 Mad. 434. (x) Pope v. Pope, 10 Sim. 1; Green v. Marsden, 1 Drew. 646; Constable v. Bull, 3 De G. & Sm. 411. (y) 1 Sim. 534.

lations at his own death, or at his wife's death? he mean that she should have the liberty of executing the trust the day after his death?"

The tendency of the later decisions is against con-Leaning struing precatory or recommendatory words as trusts. against construing preca-If, therefore, the giver accompanies his expression of tory words as wish or request by other words from which it is to be collected that he did not intend the wish to be imperative, or if it appears from the context, that the first taker was intended to have a discretionary power to withdraw any part of the subject from the object of the wish or request, or where the motive by which the giver was actuated is stated, no trust will be created (z). So where there was a gift of stock to a person, and there was added parenthetically (to enable him to assist such children of my deceased brother as he may find deserving of encouragement), it was held an absolute bequest, and that no trust was created for the children (a).

It is most important to observe that although vague- If trust be ness in the object will unquestionably furnish reason intended, but not validly for holding that no trust was intended, yet this may created, it enurs for the be countervailed by other considerations which show benefit not of that a trust was intended, while at the same time such but of the trust is not sufficiently certain and definite to be valid heir-at-law or next of kin. and effectual; and it is not necessary to exclude the legatee from taking a beneficial interest, that there should be a valid or effectual trust; it is only necessary that it should clearly appear that a trust was intended. Thus, in Briggs v. Penny (b), the testatrix, Briggs v. after giving, among other legacies, a sum of £3000 to Penny . Sarah Penny, and a like sum of £3000 in addition for

(b) 3 Mac. & G. 546.

⁽z) Howorth v. Dewell, 29 Beav. 18; Lambe v. Eames, L. R. 10 Eq.

⁽a) Benson v. Whittam, 5 Sim. 22.

the trouble she would have as executrix, bequeathed all her residuary personal estate to the said Sarah Penny, "well knowing that she will! make a good use and dispose of it in a manner in accordance with my views and wishes." The testatrix appointed Sarah Penny sole executrix of her will. It was held by Lord Truro, affirming the decision below, that Sarah Penny did not take the residue for her own benefit. "There is nothing," said his Lordship, "on the face of the words which necessarily implies what is vague and indefinite, as in those cases where the court has held that the uncertainty of the object has afforded evidence that no trust was intended. I agree with the Vice-Chancellor in interpreting 'views and wishes' to mean designs and desires.' And the very expression of confidence that Miss Penny would make a good use, and dispose of the property in a manner in accordance with the testatrix's designs, or desires, or intentions, appears to me to amount to a declaration that Miss Penny was to hold the property for that purpose, or in other words to the same import, upon trust. It seems to me to be tantamount to a bequest upon trust, and if so, that is sufficient to exclude Miss Penny from taking the beneficial interest. Such views and wishes may be left unexplained, but still in such a case it is clear a trust was intended, and that is sufficient to exclude the legatee from the beneficial interest. Once establish that a trust was intended, and the legatee cannot take beneficially. If a testator gives upon trust, though he never adds a syllable to denote the objects of that trust, or though he declares the trust in such a way as not to exhaust the property, or though he declares it imperfectly, or though the trusts are illegal, still in all these cases the legatee is excluded and the next of kin take. But there is peculiar effect in the word 'trust.' Other expressions may be equally indicative of a fiduciary intent, though not equally apt or clear. In this case, however, we are not left to spell out a trust from the

residuary clause alone; the fact that besides a legacy of £,3000, another legacy is expressly given to Miss Penny, 'in addition for the trouble she will have in acting as my executrix,' clearly shows that she was not intended to take the residue beneficially; because if Miss Penny was to take the whole residue beneficially, as the testatrix must be presumed to have acted upon the belief, which the fact warranted, that her estate was abundantly sufficient to satisfy all bequests, there could be no object in taking out of that residue, of which she was to have the whole, £3000 for her trouble; the fact of the legacy not only strongly confirms, but is only consistent with, the hypothesis, that the whole residue was not to be taken beneficially. It cannot be referable to the trouble she would have in the execution of the bequests in the will itself or the proved codicils, for though the bequests are numerous, not one of them involves any amount of trouble; whereas the views and wishes of the testatrix to which she alluded. might be such that the carrying of them into effect might involve the executrix in very difficult trusts" (c).

Where property (real or personal) is given by will to VII. Secret a trustee, or being personal is bequeathed to or vests in Trusts,—when and when not the executor, and there is nothing on the face of the enforced. will suggesting that the beneficial interest is to be taken by such devisee-trustee or legatee-executor, or simple executor, and, à fortiori, if the contrary intention appears on the face of the will, then the beneficial interest is undisposed of by the will, and a further writing to be executed as a will is necessary to dispose of the beneficial interest. Therefore, no secret trust, declared by word of mouth only, or even declared by writing (unless such writing is duly executed and attested as a will, or, being in existence at the date of, is

⁽c) Langley v. Thomas, 6 De G. M. & G., 645; Bernard v. Minshull, Johns. 276; and disting. Stead v. Mellor, L. R. 5 Ch. Div. 225.

incorporated in, the will), is permitted to be valid (d); but the property attempted to be subjected to the secret trust will go, so far as it consists of real estate, to the heir-at-law or residuary devisee, and, so far as it consists of personal estate, to the next of kin or residuary legatee. On the other hand, if the devisee or legatee (whether such legatee be also the executor or not) appears on the face of the will to be intended to take the beneficial interest as well as the legal interest, then no parol evidence to contradict or vary the plain effect of the will is admissible; but to this rule there is the usual exception on the ground of fraud, viz., that parol evidence may be admitted to prove a fraud on the part of the beneficial devisee or beneficial legatee in procuring the gift to be made to him by the will, in that he undertook a certain secret trust, and such undertaking on his part was the cause of the will being made as it is made; and in that case the court will enforce discovery of the secret trust, and if it find the secret trust lawful, it will decree execution thereof; and if it find the secret trust unlawful, it will give the property, if real, to the heir-at-law or residuary devisee, and if personal, to the next of kin or residuary legatee of the testator (e). But if no trust is imposed by the will, and no communication was made in the testator's lifetime to the devisee or legatee, the devise or bequest will be good, although the devisee or legatee may, notwithstanding the absence of legal obligation, be disposed from the bent and impulse of his own mind to carry out what he believes to have been the testator's wishes (f). And when lands were conveyed to trustees for a charity by a deed duly enrolled, and without any reservation upon the face of it to the grantor, but upon a secret trust that the deed

⁽d) Adlington v. Cann, 3 Atk. 141; Muckleston v. Brown, 6 Ves. 52.

⁽e) Strickland v. Aldridge, 9 Ves. 519.
(f) Lewin on Trusts, 5th edition, 52; Cullen v. Attorney-General,
L. R. 1 H. L. 190; Rowbotham v. Dunnett, 8 Ch. Div. 430.

should not operate until after the settlor's death, the deed was declared void, and decreed to be set aside (g).

There remains to be eighthly considered a class of VIII. Powers cases, in which powers are given to persons accompanied trusts; otherwith such words of recommendation in favour of certain wise, trusts in the garb objects as to render them powers in the nature of trusts; (or under the disguise) of so that the failure of the donees to exercise such powers powers. in favour of the objects will not turn to their prejudice, since the court will, to a certain extent, take upon itself the duties of the donees of the power (h). It is perfectly clear that where there is a mere power of disposing, and that power is not executed, this court cannot execute it (i). It is equally clear that wherever a trust is created, and the execution of that trust fails by the death of the trustee, or by accident, this court will execute the trust (j). But there is not only a mere trust and a mere power, but there is also known to the court a power with which the party to whom it is given is entrusted, and which he is required to execute; and with regard to that species of power, the court considers it as partaking so much of the nature and qualities of a trust, that if the person who Court takes has that duty imposed on him does not discharge it, their executhe court will to a certain extent discharge the duty tion. in his room and place (k).

In Burrough v. Philcox (l), a testator directed that Burrough v. certain stock should stand in his name, and certain power equal to real estates remain unalienated, "until the following a trust subject to right of contingencies are completed;" and after giving life selection. interests in such stock and estates to his two children. with remainder to their issue, he declared that in case

⁽g) Way v. East, 2 Drew. 44.

⁽h) Gude v. Worthington, 3 De G. & Sm. 389; Izod v. Izod, 32 Beav.

⁽j) Ibid. (i) Brown v. Higgs, 8 Ves. 570. (k) Ibid., 8 Ves. 561; Tweedale v. Tweedale, 7 Ch. Div. 633; Wheeler v. Warner, I S. & S. 304. (l) 5 My. & Cr. 72.

his two children should both die without leaving lawful issue, the same should be disposed of, as after mentioned; that is to say, the survivor of his two children should have power to dispose by his will, of his real and personal estate, "amongst my nephews and nieces or their children, either all to one of them, or to as many of them as my surviving child shall think proper." It was held by Lord Cottenham that a trust was created in favour of the testator's nephews and nieces and their children, subject to a power of selection and distribution in his surviving child. there appears," observes his Lordship, "a general in-General intention in favour of a class and a particular intention in favour of individuals of a class to be selected by another person, and the particular intention fails, from that selection not being made, the court will carry into effect the general intention in favour of the class."

tion in favour of a class carried out, if particular intention fail.

Salusbury v. Denton,-to same effect.

In Salusbury v. Denton (m), a testator by will gave a fund to be at the disposal of his widow by her will, therewith to apply a part for charity, the remainder to be at her disposal among my "relations, in such proportions as she may be pleased to direct." The widow died without exercising the power of determining the proportions in which each was to take. Held, that the bequest was not void for uncertainty, but that the court would divide the fund in moieties, and give one of such moieties to charitable purposes, and the other moiety to such of the testator's relatives as were capable of taking within the statutes of distribution (n).

The shares of the appointees are equal.

The case lastly before referred to shows, that when equity executes an unexecuted power-trust or trustpower of this sort, she applies her own maxim, that equality is equity, and divides the property equally;

⁽m) 3 K. & J. 529. (n) Little v. Neil, 10 W. R. 592; Gough v. Bult, 16 Sim. 45.

although the trustee, if he had chosen to exercise the power, might have used a discretion (o).

A cestui que trust is the peculiar favourite of courts IX. Liability of equity, and equity has sought by the most stringent to see to the rules to protect a cestui que trust against the mala fides application of carelessness of his trustee. In furtherance of this money, where there are object, the doctrine was early established in equity, cestuis que that if a trustee for sale had to pay over the purchase-trustent. money to other persons in given shares, the purchaser was bound to see that the trustee applied the purchasemoney accordingly, unless the instrument by which the trust was created contained a declaration that the trustee's receipt should be a good discharge. absence of such a declaration, the trustee was considered as not to be trusted, and the purchaser, unless he looked after him, was himself responsible for the misapplication of the money. This rule bearing very hardly on purchasers, and mortgagees who are purchasers pro tanto, and being in the way of that unfettered disposition of property which the law so much encourages, several legislative Acts have been passed relieving a purchaser of the most onerous part of his liability. It will be profitable, however, firstly to state the rules by which the purchaser's liability is regulated in cases not governed by the statutes.

I. As it is a general rule at common law that per- (1.) Personalty sonalty constitutes the natural and primary fund for exonerated. the payment of the debts of the testator, the purchaser of the whole or any part of it was not bound to see that the purchase-money was applied by the executors in discharge of the debts (p). But even in this case, if there be fraud on the part of the purchaser, he will

⁽o) Willis v. Kymer, 9 Ch. Div. 187. (p) Ewer v. Corbet, 2 P. W. 149; Keane v. Robarts, 4 Mad. 356.

not be exonerated, as where an executor disposes of his testator's assets in payment of a debt of his own (q).

- (2.) Realty,— (a) trust or charge for payment of debts and legacies generally,purchaser exonerated.
- 2. Where real estate is devised to trustees upon trust, to sell for payment of debts, or debts and legacies generally, or if the lands are merely charged with such payment, the purchaser is exonerated (r).
- (b) Trust for payment of certain debts. or legacies only,-purchaser not exonerated.
- 3. But if the trust directs lands to be sold for the payment of certain debts, mentioning in particular to whom those debts are owing, or if there is a trust for payment of legacies or annuities only, the purchaser is bound to see to the proper application of the purchasemoney (s).

Lord St. 22 & 23 Vict., c. 35,-purchase or mortgage money only.

By stat. 22 & 23 Vict., c. 35, s. 23, it is enacted Leonards' Act, that "the bona fide payment to, and the receipt of, any person to whom any purchase or mortgage money shall be payable upon any express or implied trust, shall effectually discharge the person paying the same from seeing to the application or being answerable for the misapplication thereof, unless the contrary shall be expressly declared by the instrument creating the trust or security" (t).

Lord Cranworth's Act. 23 & 24 Vict., c. 145,-any trust money whatsoever.

By 23 & 24 Vict., c. 145, s. 29, it is further enacted that "the receipts in writing of any trustees or trustee for ANY money payable to them or him by reason or in the exercise of any trusts or powers reposed or vested in them or him, shall be sufficient discharges for the money therein expressed to be re-

(t) Bennett v. Lytton, 2 J. & H. 158.

⁽q) Hill v. Simpson, 7 Ves. 152; and see Pearson v. Scott, 9 Ch. Div. 198.

⁽r) Elliot v. Merryman, I L. C. 64; Jebb v. Abbot, cited Co. Litt. 290 b.; Dowling v. Hudson, 17 Beav. 248.

⁽⁸⁾ Elliot v. Merryman, I L. C. 64; Johnson v. Kennett, 3 My. & K. 630.

ceived, and shall effectually exonerate the persons paying such money from seeing to the application thereof, or from being answerable for any loss or misapplication thereof."

The 23d section of Lord St. Leonards' Act is con- Acts not retrosidered to be not retrospective, and therefore to apply spective. only to instruments executed since August 13, 1859, the date of the passing of the Act; and the operation of Lord Cranworth's Act is, by section 34 of that Act, expressly confined to instruments coming into operation after August 28, 1860. The distinctions, therefore, which have been taken above, as to the liability of purchasers to see to the application of their purchase-money, will still apply in all cases arising under deeds or wills executed before the respective dates of those acts (u).

With regard to the provisions of these statutes, it Distinction beis necessary to bear in mind the difference between a tween a charge charge of money on lands, and a trust or power to power to raise money raise the same by sale. In the former case it was by sale. held that, though the owner of the lands was not a trustee, nor the owner of the money a cestui que trust, yet where lands so charged were sold, the purchaser was no less obliged to see to the application of his purchase-money, than if he had bought under an express trust or power. The only exception to this rule was, as we have already seen, where there was a general charge of debts. Now, however, purchasers of land, subject to a charge, are exonerated from liability, to a limited extent, under the nextly mentioned Act, that is to say,

By Lord St. Leonards' Act, sec. 14, where by a Devisees in

⁽u) Dart's V. & P. 4th ed. p. 546.

trust subject to a charge may sell or mortgage without an

will coming into operation after the passing of the Act (v), a testator charges his real estate with the payment of his debts, or any legacy or specific sum of express power; money, and devises the estate so charged to any trustee or trustees for the whole of his interest, and does not make any express provision for the raising of such debts, legacy, or sums of money, the devisee or devisees in trust, notwithstanding any trusts actually declared by the testator, may raise the same either by actual sale or by mortgage; and this power is by the 15th section extended to all succeeding trustees taking the estate by survivorship, descent, or devise, or by appointment whether under the will or by the Court of Chancery. By the 16th section, where the estate subject to the charge is not devised to trustees for the testator's whole interest, the executor or executors have a similar power of raising the amount of the charge by sale or mortgage.

And failing them, the executors may do so.

But neither

trustees nor executors may

able and willing to sell.

do so, if tenant in fee1

By section 18, it is enacted that the provisions contained in sections 14, 15, and 16, shall not extend to a devise to any person or persons in fee or in tail, or for the testator's whole estate and interest charged with debts or legacies, nor shall they affect the power of any such devisee or devisees to sell or mortgage as he or they may by law now do.

General con-Acts.

Since the change effected by this enactment, quesclusion on the tions as to the power to give receipts, and liability to see to the application of the purchase-money, have for the future become of little practical importance. To quote the words of a learned writer, "In cases falling within the 14th and 16th sections of the Act, the testator, or the legislature on his behalf, has created a fiduciary power. A charge in words has now become a trust in effect. The creditors have persons appointed to look after them; and the trustees and executors, when they agree to act under the will, undertake an express trust; and such a trust as, it is presumed, would enable them (even should legacies only be charged) to give an effectual receipt under the 29th section of the Act 23 & 24 Vict., cap. 145" (w); but this (so far as regards the charge of legacies alone) is doubtful; and it would be only prudent to require the legatees who have charges on the land to concur in the conveyance for the purpose of releasing their charges.

⁽w) Wms. Real Assets, p. 90; and see Dart's V. & P. 4th ed. p. 564.

CHAPTER III.

EXPRESS PUBLIC [OR CHARITABLE] TRUSTS.

Charities favoured by the law.

CHARITIES are in general highly favoured in the law, and charitable gifts have accordingly sometimes received a more liberal construction than gifts to But in certain other respects charities individuals. are treated on the same level as private individuals; and in one respect to be hereafter specified, charities are treated with some little disfavour. We shall consider those various respects in the order above enumerated.

I. Respects in which charities are favoured,-

Firstly, charities are sometimes favoured above individuals:

(I.) General intention effectuated.

(1.) Thus, if the testator has expressed an absolute intention to give a legacy to charitable purposes, but he has left uncertain, or to some future act, the mode by which his intention is to be carried into effect, the Court of Chancery, if no mode is pointed out, will of itself supply the defect, and enforce the charity (a). Nota bene, that the cestui que trust, if a private individual, would, in such a case, lose the benefit of the trust, on the ground of uncertainty in the object.

If gift be for will effectuate

It is, in fact, a well-established principle that if the charity, equity bequest be for a charity, it matters not how uncertain it at all events. the persons or the objects may be, or whether the persons who are to take are in esse or not, or whether the legatee be a corporation capable in law of taking or not.

⁽a) Pocock v. Att.-Gen., L. R. 3 Ch. Div. 342.

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or whether the bequest can be carried into operation or not; for in all these and the like cases, the Court of Chancery will treat it as a valid charitable bequest, and will dispose of it for such charitable purposes as it shall think fit. But the object must be distinctly But the object charitable, in order to the court construing it in that must be disfavourable way; and therefore where the bequest able. may, in conformity to the express words of the will, either be disposed of in charity of a discretionary private nature, or be employed for any general, benevolent, or useful purpose, or for any general purpose, whether charitable or otherwise, or for charitable or other general purposes at discretion, the bequest will be void, as being not exclusively charitable, and also too general and indefinite for the Court of Chancery to execute. Hence, if a man bequeaths a sum of money to such charitable uses as he shall direct, by codicil annexed to his will, or by note in writing, and he leaves no direction by codicil or note or writing, the Court of Chancery, applying the rule that the nomination of the particular objects is only the mode, and the gift to the charity the substance, of the testamentary disposition, will carry into effect the general intention of charity. But, if a testator makes a bequest to trustees for such benevolent, religious, and charitable purposes, or for such charitable or public purposes, as they should in their discretion approve of, the legacy cannot be supported, and the property devolves on the next of kin of the testator (b).

(1a.) Where the literal execution of the trusts of (r a.) Doctrine a charitable gift becomes inexpedient or impracticable, the court will execute them cy-pres, i.e., as nearly as it can to the original purpose, so as to execute them,

⁽b) Morice v. Bishop of Durham, 9 Ves. 399, 10 Ves. 522; Ellis v. Selby, I My. & Cr. 286; Bates v. Eley, L. R. I Ch. Div. 473; In re Jarman's Estate, Leaver v. Clayton, 8 Ch. Div. 584, and compare Cocks v. Manners, L. R. 12 Eq. 574, distinguished in Re Dutton, 4 Exch. Div. 45.

Applies only where there is a general intention of charity.

although not in mode, yet in substance. The general principle upon which the court acts is thus laid down by Lord Eldon in the leading case of Moggridge v. Thackwell (c), viz., "that if the testator has manifested a general intention to give to a charity, the failure of the particular mode in which the charity is to be effectuated shall not destroy the charity; but if the substantial intention is charity, the law will substitute another mode of devoting the property to charitable purposes, though the formal intention as to the mode cannot be accomplished." Thus, where there was a bequest of the residue of the testator's estate to a company to apply the interest of a moiety "unto the redemption of British slaves in Turkey and Barbary," one-fourth to charity schools in London and its suburbs, and one-fourth towards poor and destitute freemen of the company; there being no British slaves in Turkey and Barbary, the court directed a new scheme to be framed cy-pres, and approved of a scheme which gave the moiety thus undisposed of to the donees of the other fourth parts (d).

Limit to the Cy-pres doctrine. The doctrine of *cy-pres*, it will be seen, is held to be only applicable where the testator has manifested in his will a *general* intention of charity, and therefore will not be applicable whenever such general intention is not to be found. If, therefore, it is clearly seen that the testator had but one *particular* object in his mind, as, for example, to build a church at W., and that purpose cannot be answered, the next of kin will take (e).

(2.) Defects of (2.) In farther aid of charities, the court will supply

⁽c) 7 Ves. 69; and see In re Williams, L. R. 5 Ch. Div. 735; In re Birkett, 9 Ch. Div. 576.

⁽d) Att. Gen. v. The Ironmongers' Co., 2 Beav. 313.
(e) Clark v. Taylor, 1 Drew. 642; Loscombe v. Wintringham, 13 Beav. 87.

all defects of conveyances, where the donor hath a conveyance capacity and a disposable estate, and his mode of supplied. donation does not contravene the provisions of any statute (f). Note here, that in the case of private individuals the imperfection of the conveyance, being voluntary, would be fatal to the creation of the trust.

- 3. A third respect in which charities are favoured (3.) Resulting is in respect of resulting trusts. The following rules to charities. as to resulting trusts in gifts to charities are laid down in Lewin on Trustees (a).
- (a.) Where a person makes a valid gift, whether by (a.) Where deed or will, and expresses a general intention of a general charitable charity, but either particularises no objects (h), or such intention, no resulting trust. as do not exhaust the proceeds (i), the court will not suffer the property, in the first case, or the surplus in the second, to result to the settlor or his representative, but will take upon itself to execute the general intention, by declaring the particular purposes to which the fund shall be applied.
- (b.) Where a person settles lands, or the rents and (b.) So too profits of lands, to purposes which at the time exhaust where rents are exhausted the whole proceeds, but in consequence of an increase by the object indicated but in the value of the estate, an excess of income subse-subsequently quently arises, the court will order the surplus, instead increase. of resulting, to be applied in the same or a similar manner with the original amount (i).

⁽f) St. 1171; Sayer v. Sayer, 7 Hare, 377; Innes v. Sayer, 3 Mac. & G. 606.

⁽g) Pp. 130, 131. (h) Att.-Gen. v. Herrick, Amb. 712.

⁽i) Att.-Gen. v. Tonna, 2 Ves. Jr. 1. (j) Thetford School Ca. & Rep. 130 b; Beverley v. Att.-Gen. 6 H. L. Cas. 310; Att.-Gen. v. Caius College, 2 Kee. 150; Att.-Gen. v. Marchant, L. R. 3 Eq. 424.

Exception .not exhausted

But to these two rules, there is the following excepwhere rents are tion, viz., even in the case of charity, if the settlor do at time of gift. not give the land, or the whole rents of the land, but noticing the property to be of a certain value, appropriates part only to the charity, the residue will then, according to the circumstances, either result to the heir-at-law (k), or belong to the donee of the property, subject to the charge (l).

II. Respects in a level with private individuals. (r.) Want of executor

supplied.

Secondly,—Charities are sometimes treated on a which charities level exactly with individuals.

> (1.) Thus, if a testator gives his property to such person (upon trust) as he shall hereafter name to be his executor, and afterwards he appoints no executor; or if an estate is devised (upon trust) to such person as the executor shall name, and no executor is appointed; or if, an executor being appointed, he dies in the testator's lifetime, and no other is appointed in his place; in all these cases, if the bequest be in favour either of a charity or of an individual, the Court of Chancery will assume the office of an executor, and carry into effect that bequest; scilicet, because the beneficiary is certain, although the legal owner is uncertain (m).

(2.) Lapse of time a bar.

(2.) And to give another instance of the equal treatment of charities and individuals, lapse of time in equity is a bar, in the case of charitable trusts, exactly as it is (where it is) in cases of mere private trusts and no further; but, of course, where there is a breach of trust of which the purchaser has notice, lapse of time is no bar either in the case of charities or in the case of individuals; and under the Judicature Act, 1873,

⁽k) Att.-Gen. v. Mayor of Bristol, 2 J. & W. 308. (l) Beverley v. Att.-Gen. 6 H. L. Cas. 310; Att.-Gen. v. Southmoulton, 5 H. L. Cas. 1; Att.-Gen. v. Trin. Coll. Camb. 24 Beav. 383.
(m) Mills v. Farmer, 1 Mer. 55, 96; Moggridge v. Thackwell, 7 Ves. 36.

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sect. 25, sub-sect. 2, as between an express trustee and his cestui que trust, no lapse of time is a bar in respect of a breach of any such trust. Thus, in the case of a charitable trust, where a corporation had purchased with notice of the trust, and had held the property under an adverse title for one hundred and fifty years, it was decided that the corporation should reconvey the property upon the original trusts (n).

Thirdly,—It remains to specify the one respect in III. One rewhich charities are treated with disfavour, compared spect in which charities are with individuals. It is this:---

Assets will not be marshalled by a court of equity Assets not in favour of a charity. Thus, if a testator give his real marshalled in favour of and personal estate (consisting of personalty savouring charities. of reality, as leaseholds, and also, of pure personalty) to trustees, upon trust to sell and pay his debts and legacies, and bequeath the residue to a charity, equity will not marshal the assets by throwing the debts and ordinary legacies upon the proceeds of the real estate, and the personalty savouring of reality, in order to leave the pure personalty for the charity (o). rule of the court in such cases is, to appropriate the fund, as if no legal objection existed, as to applying any portion of it to the charity legacies: and then to hold such proportion of the charity legacies to fail, as would in that way fall to be paid out of the prohibited fund (p). But, of course, although the court will not itself marshal, the testator may direct his property to Unless by be marshalled, and the court is then most ready to express direction of the carry out his directions most favourably for the testator. charity (q).

⁽n) Att.-Gen. v. Christ's Hospital, 3 My. & K. 344.
(o) Fourdrin v. Gowdey, 3 My. & K. 397.
(p) Williams v. Kershaw, 1 Keen, 274 n.; Robinson v. Governors of the London Hospital, 10 Hare, 19; Tudor's L. C. in Real Prop. 491.
(q) Miles v. Harrison, L. R. 9 Ch. App. 316; and see Champney v. Davey, W. N. 1879, 27.

CHAPTER IV.

IMPLIED AND RESULTING TRUSTS.

Implied trusts. An implied trust, as the name denotes, is a trust which is founded on an unexpressed but presumed, i.e., implied, intention of the party creating it. Implied trusts are often called resulting trusts; but besides resulting trusts, all of which are implied trusts, there are other implied trusts that are not, strictly speaking, resulting trusts.

The following are the principal instances of implied trusts, viz.—

(1.) Resulting trust to purchaser upon conveyance to stranger. (1.) Resulting trust to purchaser of property conveyed or assigned to a stranger, i.e., third person.

"The clear result of all the cases is, that the trust of a legal estate, whether freehold, copyhold, or leasehold, whether taken in the names of the purchaser and others, or in the names of others without that of the purchaser, whether in one name or in several, and whether jointly or successive, results to the man who advances the purchase-money; and it goes in strict analogy to the rule of common law, that where a feoffment is made without consideration, the use results to the feoffor" (a). To illustrate this statement of the doctrine—Suppose A. advances the purchase-money of a freehold, copyhold, or leasehold estate, and a conveyance surrender or assignment of the legal interest in it is made either to B., or to B. and C., or to A., B., and

(a.) In case of lands.

C. jointly, or to A., B., and C. successively; in all these cases a trust will result in favour of A.

This doctrine is applicable to personal, as well as to (b.) In case real estate (b). or personal estate.

The doctrine of resulting trusts is applicable also to cases where two or more persons advance the purchasemoney jointly, but the purchase is taken in the name of one of them; for there will be in that case a resulting trust in favour of the other proportioned to the money which he has advanced (c).

If the advance of the purchase-money by the real Parol evidence purchaser does not appear on the face of the deed, and is admissible to show actual even if it is stated to have been made by the nominal purchaser. purchaser, parol evidence is admissible to prove by whom it was actually made (d). It has been objected that the admission of such evidence would be contrary to the Statute of Frauds; but it will be seen that the trust which results to the person paying the purchasemoney and taking a conveyance in the name of another is a trust resulting by operation of law, and trusts of that nature are expressly excepted from the statute (e). And a further and better reason for admitting the evidence is, that it is used for the purpose of showing that the nominal or ostensible purchaser in the deed was but the nominee or agent of the true purchaser, for which purpose, parol or extrinsic evidence was always admissible, and still is so, notwithstanding the Statute of Frauds (f).

But no trust will result where the policy of an Act But not so as

⁽b) Ebrand v. Dancer, 2 Ch. Ca. 26. (c) Wray v. Steele, 2 V. & B. 388. (d) Ryall v. Ryall, 1 Atk. 59; Lench v. Lench, 10 Ves. 511, 517; Barllett v. Pickersgill, 1 Eden. 515.

⁽e) 29 Car. II. c. 3, s. 8. (f) Higgins v. Senior, 8 Mee. & W. 834.

to defeat the policy of the law. of Parliament would be thereby defeated, as where the subject matter of the conveyance is a British ship, or land qualifying the grantee to vote for a Member of Parliament (g).

Resulting trust may be rebutted by evidence of purchaser's intention.

Resulting trusts, moreover, as they arise from an equitable presumption, may be rebutted by parol evidence, showing it was the intention of the person who advanced the purchase-money that the person to whom the property was transferred should take for his own benefit (h).

The presumption of advancement.

And where the purchaser is under a legal, or, in certain cases, a merely moral obligation to maintain or otherwise provide for the person in whose name the purchase is made, equity will raise a presumption that the purchase was intended as an advancement. Therefore, as to purchases made in the name of children or of persons similarly favoured, it may be laid down as a general rule that there will primâ facie be no resulting trust for the purchaser, but, on the contrary, a presumption arises that an advancement was intended.

In whose favour it will be raised.

- (a.) In whose favour this presumption will be raised.
- 1. Legitimate child.
- 1. In favour of a legitimate child (i).

2. One to whom the purchaser has in loco parentis.

2. The presumption may also arise in favour of any person with regard to whom the person advancing the placed himself money has placed himself in loco parentis; thus, in Beckford v. Beckford (i), an illegitimate son, in Ebrand

⁽g) Ex parte Yallop, 15 Ves. 68; Groves v. Groves, 3 Y. & J. 163, 175; Childers v. Childers, I De G. & Jo. 482.

⁽h) Deacon v. Colquhoun, 2 Drew. 21; Wheeler v. Smith, 1 Giff. 300; Lane v. Dighton, Amb. 409.

⁽i) Sidmouth v. Sidmouth, 2 Beav. 447; Dyer v. Dyer, 2 Cox, 92. (j) Lofft. 490.

v. Dancer (k), a grandchild, whose father was dead (1). and in Currant v. Jago (m), the nephew of a wife, were held entitled to property purchased in their names, from the presumption of advancement being intended. But it has been held in a recent case that the mere fact that a person has placed himself in loco parentis towards the illegitimate child of his daughter did not alone raise a presumption of advancement in his favour. Wood, V. C., said,—"The Court has never yet held that any presumption of advancement arose merely from the fact of so distant a relationship (if it be a relationship) as this, nor yet merely from the fact that one of the parties was in loco parentis to the other. Here I am asked to conjoin both the doctrines, and out of the weak parts of both to make one strong chain, and hold that the testator was under the obligation of making provision for an illegitimate grandchild, whom he was not under any obligation, moral or legal, to support, and whose father was alive, merely on the ground that he had voluntarily brought up and educated him" (n).

3. The presumption also arises in favour of a wife (o). 3. A wife. But it will not arise when the purchaser makes the purchase in the names of himself and a woman, or in the name of the woman alone, with whom he has contracted an illegal marriage, as in the case of a marriage with a deceased wife's sister (p), or with whom he has contracted no marriage at all, as in the case of a mere mistress or concubine or kept woman (q).

In Drew v. Martin (r), a husband entered into an

⁽k) 2 Ch. Ca 26. (l) See Soar v. Foster, 4 K. & J. 152.

⁽m) 1 Coll. C. Ca. 261.
(n) Tucker v. Burrow, 2 H. & M. 515; Forrest v. Forrest, 13 W. R. 380.
(o) Drew v. Martin, 2 H. & M. 130; In re Eykyn's Trusts, L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 115.

⁽p) Soar v. Foster, 4 K. & J. 152.

⁽q) Rider v. Kidder, 10 Ves. 360. (r) 2 H. & M. 130.

agreement for the purchase of land in the name of himself and his wife, and died before the whole of the purchase money was paid. Held, that the purchase enured for the benefit of the widow, and that the unpaid purchase-money was payable out of the husband's personal estate.

Re De Visme, tion against a mother in favour of her children.

In re De Visme (s), it was decided that where a -no presump-married woman had, out of her separate property, made a purchase in the name of her children, no presumption of advancement arose; inasmuch as a married woman was under no obligation, as the law then stood, to maintain her children (t); and, in the general case, the decision of the court would be the same still. notwithstanding that by the Married Woman's Property Act, 1870 (33 & 34 Vict., c. 93), a married woman having separate property under that Act is now laid under some liability to maintain her lawful children (u).

The presumption is rebuttable by parol evidence.

His contemand declarations are for and against

The presumption of advancement being an equitable presumption, may be rebutted by parol evidence. "The advancement of a son is a mere question of intention, and, therefore, facts antecedent or contemporaneous with the purchase, or so immediately after poraneous acts it as to constitute a part of the same transaction, may properly be put in evidence for the purpose of rebutevidence both ting the presumption" (v). In Williams v. Williams the purchaser. (w), it was objected that a parol declaration by the father at the time that he intended the son to hold as trustee, amounted to the *creation* of a trust in his own favour, and was therefore by the Statute of Frauds rendered inadmissible. But this objection was thus

(10) 32 Beav. 370.

⁽s) 2 De G. Jo. & S. 17.

⁽t) Holt v. Frederick, 2 P. Wms. 356.

⁽u) Bennett v. Bennett, 10 Ch. Div. 474. (v) Lewin on Trustees, 136; Tumbridge v. Care, 19 W. R. 1047; but see Devoy v. Devoy, 3 Sm. & Giff. 403.

answered: that "as the trust would result to the father, were it not rebutted by the son-ship as a circumstance of evidence, the father may counteract that circumstance by the evidence arising from his parol declaration "(v).

A fortiori parol evidence may be given by the son to show the intentions of the father to advance him; for such evidence is in support both of the legal interest of the son and of the equitable presumption (w).

The act and declarations of the father subsequent to His subsethe purchase may be used in evidence against him by quent acts and the son, although they could not be used by the father are evidence against but against the son (x); and the better opinion seems to not for the be, that the subsequent acts and declarations of the purchaser. son can be used against him by the father, where there is nothing showing the intention of the father at the time of the purchase sufficient to counteract the effect of those declarations (y). For example, the presumption of advancement will not be rebutted by the mere circumstance that the father retains the property under his control, or that he receives the rents and profits, or interest, even though the son were no longer an infant (z).

(2.) Resulting trust of unexhausted residue. very common case of resulting trust arises where a trust of unexhausted settlor conveys property on trusts which do not ex-residue. haust the whole property; in that case, as to so much of the property respecting which no trust is declared,

A (2.) Resulting

⁽v) Lewin on Trustees, 144.

⁽w) Lamplugh v. Lamplugh, I P. Wms. 113.

⁽x) Reddington v. Reddington, 3 Ridg. P. C. 195, 197. (y) Sidmouth v. Sidmouth, 2 Beav. 455; Scawin v. Scawin, 1 Y. & C.

C. C. 65. (z) Sidmouth v. Sidmouth, 2 Beav. 447; Grey v. Grey, 2 Swanst. 594; Williams v. Williams, 32 Beav. 370. Distinguish Bone v. Pollard, 24 Beav. 283.

there will be a resulting trust in favour of the settlor (a), and if he is dead, thenas regards the realty in favour of his heir or residuary devisee, and as regards the personalty in favour of his next of kin or residuary legatee. And the same rule would apply to a testator giving property by will.

Trustee cannot generally take beneficially.

ficially. Devise on trust,-devisee takes no benefit.

It is a leading rule with regard to resulting trusts, where property is given simply upon trust, that the trustee is excluded by that fact from taking beneficially, in case of failure of the whole or part of the purpose for which the trust was directed (b). Thus, in King v. Denison (c), in exemplifying the difference between a gift on trust and a gift vesting the beneficial interest in the donee, the judgment says,-" If I give Devise with a to A. and his heirs all my real estate charged with my charge,—devi-see takes bene- debts, that is a devise to him for a particular purpose, but not for that purpose alone. If the devise is on trust to pay my debts, that is a devise for a particular purpose, and nothing more; and the effect of these two modes admits just this difference; the former is a devise of an estate for the purpose of giving the devisee the beneficial interest, subject to a particular purpose; the latter is a devise for a particular purpose with no intention to give him any beneficial interest; where, therefore, the whole legal interest is given for the purpose of satisfying trusts expressed, and those trusts do not in their execution exhaust the whole, so much of the beneficial interest as is not exhausted belongs to the heir; but where the whole legal interest is given for a particular purpose, with an intention to give to the donee of the legal estate the beneficial interest, if the whole is not exhausted by the particular purpose, the surplus goes to the devisee, as it is intended to be given to him."

⁽a) Parnell v. Hingston, 3 Sm. & Giff. 344.

⁽b) 2 Sp. 225, 226.

But suppose that a trust of property having been Death of created does not exhaust the whole of it, and there is settler, or created does not exhaust the whole of it, and there is settler, or no one in whose favour the trust can result, i.e., that intestate and without repreas to realty the owner dies intestate and without heirs, sentatives. and as to personalty he dies intestate and without any next of kin-who takes the property in each of these cases,—the crown or the trustee?

As to realty, in Burgess v. Wheate (d), A. being As to realty, seised in fee ex parte paterna, conveyed real estate to trustee takes trustees, in trust for herself, her heirs, and assigns, to because, if trustee seised the intent that she should appoint, and for no other in fee, there is use whatsoever. A. died without having made an ap-no escheat. pointment, and without any heirs ex parte paternâ; it was held (under the old law) that the maternal heir was not entitled, and that there being a terre-tenant, the holder of the legal estate, the crown claiming by escheat had no right to a conveyance of the land, and that the trustees, therefore, took beneficially. On the same prin- so also where ciple, where a mortgage in fee is made, and the mort-mortgagee seised in fee. gagor dies intestate and without heirs, the equity of redemption does not escheat, but belongs to the mortgagee, subject to the mortgagor's debts (e), and subject, of course, to his widow's right of dower, if he have left a widow.

As to personalty, the rule is very different. Under As to personthe circumstances stated, the crown, by virtue of its takes as bona prerogative, may claim it as bona vacantia (f). where the executor is executor simply, and not also a trustee by express creation of the testator, then it appears that in such a case, the executor may take or keep beneficially the unexhausted residue (q).

But vacantia.

⁽d) I Eden, 177.

⁽e) Beale v. Symonds, 16 Beav. 406.

⁽f) Taylor v. Haygarth, 14 Sim. 8; Middleton v. Spicer, I Br. C. C. 201.

⁽g) See Lewin on Trustees, 50.

Executors took undisposed-of-residue before I Will. IV., c. 40. Except where excluded by testator's intention, express or implied.

Before the statute I Will. IV., c. 40, where a testator made no express disposition of the residue of his personal estate, the executors were at law entitled to such residue; and courts of equity so far followed the law as to hold the executors to be entitled to retain such residue for their own use, unless it appeared to have been the testator's intention to exclude them from the beneficial interest therein, in which latter case they were held to be trustees for the person or persons who would have been entitled to such estate under the statute of distributions, if the testator had died intestate. And equity laid hold of any circumstance or expression in the will, which might appear to rebut the presumption of a gift to the executors, and convert them into trustees. Thus the intention to exclude the executors from taking beneficially, was inferred from an express legacy being given to the executor, or where equal legacies were given to the executors, if more than one, but not if unequal legacies were given them (h).

(3.) Executors now trustees for representatives of deceased.

(3.) The last-mentioned statute, however, by way of furthering the views of the court of equity, enacts that as to wills made after the 1st Sept. 1830, the executors shall be deemed by courts of equity to be trustees for the persons (if any) who would be entitled, under the statute of distributions, in respect of any residue not expressly disposed of, unless it should appear by the will that the executors were intended to take such residue beneficially. Whereas before the statute the presumption was in favour of the executors, after the statute, the onus has been shifted on them, of proving that the testator intended them to take beneficially (i),—that is to say, as against the next of kin; for in such a case, the original presumption in favour

 ⁽h) Lynn v. Beaver, T. & R. 63; Blinkhorn v. Feast, 2 Ves. Sr. 26.
 (i) Harrison v. Harrison, 2 H. & M. 237.

of the executor would, semble, remain as against the Crown (i).

- (4.) Resulting trusts arising under the operation of (4.) Resulting the doctrine of conversion are another important group trusts under the doctrine of implied trusts; they are fully considered in Chap. of conversion. ix., infra, to which chapter the reader is referred.
- (5.) Implied trusts arising out of joint-tenancies (5.) Implied remain to be considered. It is well known, that trusts arising out of jointaccording to the maxim, "Equity follows the law," tenancies. limitations which confer an estate in joint-tenancy at law have the same effect in equity, when there are no circumstances which afford grounds for departure from the rule of law; so that where two or more persons purchase lands, and advance the money in equal shares, and take a conveyance to themselves and their heirs, they will be joint-tenants in equity as at law, and upon the death of one of them the estate will go to the survivor (k). But equity, acting on the Equity leans broad principle that equality is equity, leans strongly against survivorship in against joint-tenancy, with its one-sided right of sur-joint-tenancy. vivorship: for though it is true that each joint-tenant may have an equal chance of being the survivor, and thus taking the whole, yet this is but an equality in point of chance: as soon as one dies there is an end to the equality between them; on that event the whole accrues to the survivor. And the equal certainty of having an absolute equal share, or a share proportionate to the amount of the purchase-money advanced, is considered the far higher and truer equity than an equal chance of having the whole or none of the property purchased (l). Joint-tenancy not being favoured in equity, courts of equity will therefore lay hold of almost any circumstances from which it can reasonably

⁽j) See Lewin on Trustees, 50. (k) Litt. s. 280. (l) Rigden v. Vallier, 2 Ves. Sr. 258.

stances defeat survivorship.

Slight circum- be implied that a tenancy in common was intended, and will treat the surviving joint-purchaser as a trustee for the legal representatives of the deceased purchaser. Thus :—

(a.) Advance of purchasemoney unequally.

- (a.) Where two or more persons purchase lands and advance the purchase-money in unequal proportions, and this appears on the deed itself, this makes them in the nature of partners; the survivor will be deemed in equity a trustee for the other, in proportion to the sum advanced by him (m); and where the purchasemoneys are advanced in equal proportions, it is only because, and only when, equity can find no sufficient circumstance of difference, that she reluctantly permits the survivorship-incident of joint-tenancy to have its way.
- (b.) Jointmortgage.
- (b.) Where money is advanced either in equal or in unequal shares, by persons who take a mortgage to themselves jointly, in equity there will be a tenancy in common (n).
- (c.) No survivorship in commercial purchases.
- (c.) The same rule is uniformly applied to joint purchases in the way of trade, and for purposes of partnership, and for other commercial transactions, by analogy to, and in expansion and furtherance of, the great maxim of the common law: - Jus accrescendi inter mercatores pro beneficio commercii locum non habet (o),

Land devised in jointtenancy.

Where, however, land is not purchased but is devised to two persons as joint-tenants, who make no use of it for partnership purposes, they will not be held tenants in common in equity, unless they should have

⁽m) Lake v. Gibson, 1 L. C. 198.

⁽n) Morley v. Bird, 3 Ves. 631; Robinson v. Preston, 4 K. & J. 505. (o) Lake v. Gibson, 1 L. C. 198; Jeffercys v. Small, 1 Vern. 217.

subsequently agreed so to hold; but if it can be inferred from their mode of dealing with the property for a long period of time (p), e.g., if they have used it for partnership purposes or have classed it in their yearly and other accounts as portion of the assets of the partnership, then indeed the general rule will apply, and the right of survivorship will be excluded.

 ⁽p) Jackson v. Jackson, 9 Ves. 591; Morris v. Barrett, 3 You. & J. 384; Davies v. Games, W. N. 1879, p. 145.

CHAPTER V.

CONSTRUCTIVE TRUSTS.

A CONSTRUCTIVE trust, as distinguished from both express and implied trusts, may be defined to be a trust which is raised by *construction* of equity, without reference to any intention of the parties, either expressed or presumed.

The following are the principal instances of constructive trusts, viz.:—

- (1.) Equitable liens.
- (I.) The doctrine of constructive trusts receives its most frequent illustrations in cases of what have been termed "equitable liens." A lien is not, strictly speaking, a jus in re, nor yet is it merely a jus ad rem; that is, it is not a property in the thing itself, nor yet does it constitute a mere personal right of action for the thing. But it is a charge upon the thing, and a charge in the view only of the court of equity, being in that respect unlike a legal rent-charge which issues out of, and is in fact part and parcel of, the land.
- (a.) Vendor's lien for unpaid purchasemoney.
- (a.) "Where the vendor conveys, without more, though the consideration is upon the face of the instrument, and by a receipt endorsed upon it, expressed to be paid, if it is the simple case of a conveyance, the money, or part of it, not being paid, as between the vendor and vendee, and persons claiming as volunteers, upon the doctrine of this court . . . though, perhaps, no actual contract has taken place, a lien shall prevail, in the one case, for the whole consideration; in

the other, for that part of the money which was not paid " (a).

As to what amounts to a waiver or abandonment of Waiver or the lien the general rule is this,—that the abandon-abandonment. ment by the vendor of his lien "is to depend, not Lien not lost upon the circumstance of taking a security, but upon collateral sethe nature of the security as amounting to evidence, curity per se. as it is sometimes called, or to declaration plain, or manifest intention, . . . of a purpose to rely not any longer upon the estate, but upon the personal credit of the individual" (b).

It is now settled that a mere personal security for Bond. the purchase-money, e.g., a bond (c), or a bill, or a promissory-note (d), will not per se evidence an intention on the part of the vendor to waive his lien over the estate.

Although the mere giving of a bond, bill, promissory- True rule,note, or covenant for the purchase-money, or the grant &c., substituing of an annuity, secured by bond or covenant (e), tive of, or only cumulawill not be sufficient to discharge the equitable lien, tive with, the yet where it appears that the note, bond, covenant, or lien? annuity was substituted for the consideration-money, or was, in fact, the thing bargained for, the lien will be lost (f). Thus, in Buckland v. Pocknell, (g), A. Buckland v. agreed to sell an estate to B. for an annuity of £200, Pocknell, -a to be paid to him for life, and an annuity of £92, to be tution. paid after his decease to his son, and B. was to pay off a mortgage to which the estate was subject. Accordingly B. executed a deed, by which he granted the annuities to A. and his son, and covenanted to

⁽a) Per Lord Eldon in Mackreth v. Symmons, 1 L. C. 330.

⁽b) Mackreth v. Symmons, 1 L. C. 334. (c) Collins v. Collins, 31 Beav. 346. (d) Hughes v. Kearney, 1 Sch. & Lefr. 134.

⁽e) Clarke v. Royle, 3 Sim. 499.

⁽f) 1 L. C. 353. (g) 13 Sim. 406.

pay them; and by a conveyance of even date, but executed after the annuity deed, after reciting the annuity deed, A. and the mortgagee, in pursuance of the agreement, and in consideration of the premises and of the annuities having been so granted, as thereinbefore recited, and of the payment of the mortgage-money, conveyed the estate to B. Upon the death of A., his son's annuity, which had been assigned to the plaintiff, became in arrear. Vice-Chancellor Shadwell held that there was no lien for the annuity. "The question." observed his Honour, "is whether it does not appear on the face of the deed that the party who contracted to sell the land has got that which he contracted to have. Adverting to the mode in which the conveyances are made, my opinion is, that it would be quite wrong, because it would be contrary to what appears to have been the agreement of the parties, to hold that after the deeds were executed any lien remained for the annuities. As there was a separate instrument, which was executed first, which contained a distinct grant of the two annuities, and covenants for payment of them; and as the conveyance was made expressly in consideration of that deed; and as it was part of the express stipulation that the mortgage-money should be paid off, and, consequently, that the mortgagee should convey his estate to the purchaser, it would be quite inconsistent with the mode in which the parties have dealt to say, that there is an ulterior latent equity for the purpose of securing the annuity in a manner in which neither party ever thought that it was to be secured; and it is evident that they did not think that it was to be so secured, from their having taken a specific security for it. In the case also of Parrot v. Sweetland (h), which came before me and Mr. Justice Bosanquet, when we had the honour of being Commissioners of the Great Seal, we affirmed the judg-

⁽h) 3 My. & K. 655.

ment of Sir J. Leach in a case where the cause of the transaction showed that the party had got that for which he bargained" (i).

When the vendor has a lien against the vendee for unpaid purchase-money, it binds the estate in the hands of the following individuals, viz.:—

- I. The purchaser himself, and his heirs, and all Against whom persons taken under him or them as volunteers (j). The lien may be enforced.
- 2. Subsequent purchasers for valuable consideration who bought with notice of the purchase-money remaining unpaid (k); for notice, as we have seen, binds the conscience of the party to satisfy all prior equities subsisting against the estate. And even where the first purchaser has sold the estate to a bonâ fide second purchaser without notice, if the second purchasemoney or part thereof has not been paid, the original vendor may proceed either against the estate for his lien, or against the second purchase-money remaining in the hands of such second purchaser for satisfaction; for, in such a case, the latter, not having yet paid his money, and getting notice of the lien before he pays it, becomes, in fact, a purchaser with notice, and with the usual consequence, viz., he takes the estate cum onere to the extent of the unpaid portion of the original purchase-money. And this proceeds upon a general ground, that where trust-money can be traced, it may be followed and applied to the purposes of the trust (l).
 - 3. The assignees, i.e., trustee, of a bankrupt, although

(1) Lench v. Lench, 10 Ves. 511.

⁽i) Dixon v. Gayfere, 21 Beav. 118; Dyke v. Rendall, 2 De G. M. & G. 209; In re Brentwood Brick and Coal Co., L. R. 4 Ch. Div. 562.

⁽j) Mackreth v. Symmons, 1 L. C. 357. (k) Walker v. Preswick, 2 Ves. Sr. 622; Hughes v. Kearney, 1 Sch. & Lefr. 135; Morris v. Chambers, 29 Beav. 246.

they may have had no notice of it; for the assignees, *i.e.*, trustee, in bankruptcy take subject to all the equities attaching to the bankrupt (m).

4. If the legal estate be outstanding, then as the second purchaser for value, whether with or without notice, has only an equitable interest, he will be postponed to the equitable lien, which comes earlier in date, in accordance with the maxim, "Qui prior est tempore potior est jure."

Against whom the lien is not enforced.

On the other hand, the lien will not prevail against a bond fide purchaser for valuable consideration without notice, who has the legal estate in him (n), for here the maxim applies,—"Where the equities are equal the law shall prevail."

Vendor may lose his lien by negligence. -Rice v. Rice.

And the first vendor may find his lien postponed through his own negligence. Thus in Rice v. Rice (o), certain leaseholds were assigned to a purchaser by a deed, which recited the payment of the whole purchase-money, and had the usual receipt endorsed on it; the title-deeds were delivered up to the purchaser. Some of the vendors received no part of their share of the purchase-money, having allowed the payment to stand over for a few days, on the promise of the purchaser then to pay. The day after the execution of the deeds, the purchaser deposited the assignment and title-deeds with the defendants, with a memorandum of deposit to secure an advance, and then absconded without paying either the unpaid vendors or the equitable mortgagees. It was held that the defendants, the equitable mortgagees, although having only an equity. and although being posterior in point of date, were entitled to payment out of the estate in priority to the

⁽m) Ex parte Hanson, 12 Ves. 349; Fawell v. Heelis, Amb. 724.
(n) Cator v. Pembroke, 1 Bro. C. Ci 302.

⁽o) 2 Drew. 73.

claim of the unpaid vendors for their lieu, on the following grounds:-That though as equitable interests they were of equal worth in their abstract nature and quality. and would in the general case have been paid merely according to their order in point of time, still that the vendors had lost their priority by their own negligence: that "the vendors, when they sold the estate, chose to leave part of the purchase-money unpaid, and yet executed and delivered to the purchaser a conveyance by which they declared, in the most deliberate and solemn manner, both in the body and by a receipt endorsed, that the whole purchase-money had been paid; that they might have required that the title-deeds should remain in their custody, with or even without a memorandum, by way of equitable mortgage, as a security for the unpaid purchase-money; that they voluntarily armed the purchaser with the means of dealing with the estate as the absolute legal and equitable owner, free from every shadow of encumbrance or adverse equity; that the defendant, who afterwards took a mortgage, was in effect invited and encouraged by the vendors to rely on the purchaser's title; and that they had in effect by their own acts assured the mortgagee that as far as they (the vendors) were concerned, the mortgagor had an indefeasible title both at law and in equity" (p).

(b.) Corresponding to the lien of the vendor for his (b.) Vendee's unpaid purchase-money, is the right of the vendee, to lien for pre-maturely paid have a lien upon the estate in the hands of the vendor purchasefor the whole or part of his purchase-money prematurely paid (q); and this lien will exist not only as against the vendor, but also as against a subsequent mortgagee who had notice of the payments having been

⁽p) Wilson v. Keating, 4 De G. & Jo. 588. (q) Wythes v. Lee, 3 Drew. 396; Turner v. Marriott, L. R. 3 Eq. 744.

made (r), and in fact generally against all the like persons above enumerated against whom the vendor's lien would prevail. Nevertheless, an unpaid vendor is not a mere bare trustee before conveyance (s) within the meaning of the Vendor and Purchaser's Act, 1874.

(2.) Renewal of lease by trustee in his own name.

(2.) Another common instance of a constructive trust arises upon the renewal of leases; the invariable rule being that a lease renewed by a trustee or executor in his own name and for his own benefit professedly, although without fraud, and even upon the refusal of the lessor to grant a new lease to the cestui que trust, shall be held upon trust for the person entitled to the old lease (t). And this rule is applicable also to persons having a limited interest in a renewable lease, as a tenant for life; if he renews it in his own name he will be held a trustee for those entitled in remainder (u). And the reason of this rule is obvious. that it is but fair, if a tenant for life, acting upon the goodwill that accompanies the possession, gets a more durable term, that he should hold it for the benefit of those in remainder (v). So likewise, if a partner renew a lease of the partnership premises on his own account. he will, as a general rule, be held a trustee of it for the firm (w), and the like rule applies to all persons occupying a fiduciary or quasi-fiduciary relation.

Or by tenant

for life.

Or partner.

(3.) A constructive trust may also arise where a person who is only part owner, acting bona fide, permanently benefits an estate by repairs or improvements; for a lien or trust may arise in his favour in respect of the sum he has expended in such repairs or improve-

^(3.) Allowance for payments where same are necessary and perma-nently beneficial.

⁽r) Watson v. Rose, 10 W. R. 745, 10 Ho. L. Ca. 672. (s) Morgan v. Swansea U. S. Authority, 9 Ch. Div. 582.

⁽t) Keech v. Sandford, 1 L. C. 46. (u) Mill v. Hill, 3 H. L. Cas. 828; Yem v. Edwards, 1 De G. & Jo. 598.

⁽v) James v. Dean, 15 Ves. 236. (w) Featherstonhaugh v. Fenwick, 17 Ves. 311; Clegg v. Fishwick, 1 Mac. & G. 294; Bell v. Barnett, 21 W. R. 119.

ments (x). Thus it was intimated in Neesom v. Clarkson (y), that although a person expending money by mistake upon the property of another has no equity against the owner who was ignorant of and did not encourage him in his expenditure (z), yet if it were necessary for the true owner to proceed in equity he He who seeks would only be entitled to its assistance, according to do equity. the ordinary rule, by doing equity and making compensation for the expenditure, so far, of course, and only so far as the expenditure was necessary, and has proved permanently beneficial. But a person will have no equity who lays out money on the property of another with full knowledge of the state of the title (a), or who lays out money unnecessarily and fancifully, extravagantly or improperly.

So again, where a tenant for life, under a will, has Improvements gone on to finish permanently beneficial improvements by tenant for to an estate which had been begun by the testator. courts of equity have deemed the expenditure a charge for which the tenant is entitled to a lien (b). Thus, in Dent v. Dent (c) a tenant for life had expended on the estate large sums,—(1) In completing a mansion-house, left unfinished by the testatrix; (2) In erecting a conservatory and vinery; (3) In rebuilding farmhouses, &c.; (4) In erecting cottages; (5) In erecting permanent furnaces, works, buildings, &c., at some copper works; (6) In draining marshy ground; and (7) In making payments to keep a foreign mine working so as to prevent its forfeiture; —it was held that he was entitled to no allowance for these sums out of the personal estate of the testatrix, held upon similar

⁽x) Lake v. Gibson, 1 L. C. 198. (y) 4 Hare, 97.

⁽²⁾ Nicholson v. Hooper, 4 My. & Cr. 186. (a) Rennie v. Young, 2 De G. & Jo. 136; Ramsden v. Dyson, L.R. 1

⁽b) Hibbert v. Cooke, I Sim. & Stu. 552.
(c) 30 Beav. 363; and see In re Leslie's Settlement Trusts, L. R. 2 Ch. Div. 185.

trusts, or to any inquiry respecting them, excepting those laid out in the 1st and 7th of them, i.e., in completing the mansion, and in keeping up the foreign mine, an inquiry being directed, whether the outlay on these two accounts, or either (and which?) of them, was or was not for the benefit of the inheritance (d).

Trustee has a lien on trustfund for expenses of renewal.

A trustee, executor, or other fiduciary person who has renewed a lease has, however, a lien upon the estate for the costs and expenses of the renewal with interest (e).

Salvagemoneys on policy of insurance.

Similarly where payments have been made in order to prevent the lapse of a policy, the person making such payments is entitled to a lien for the amount on the proceeds of the policy, on the footing of salvagemoneys (f), but apparently to no other beneficial interest in the property.

(4.) Heir of mortgagee trustee for personal representatives.

(4.) When a person has a mortgage in fee which he has not foreclosed, the legal estate in the mortgaged premises descends, in case of intestacy, to his heir; but in equity the mortgaged estate being only a security for money, the heir or devisee will be held a trustee of the legal estate in the lands for the personal representatives of the deceased mortgagee for the purpose of securing them the mortgage moneys, to hand over or distribute among and through the persons entitled to the personal estate of the mortgagee (g); and now under the Vendor and Purchaser's Act, 1874 (h), the executor or administrator may himself reconvey the legal estate, on payment of the mortgage

⁽d) Dunne v. Dunne, 3 Sm. & Giff. 22. In re Leigh's Estate, L. R. 6 Ch. 887.

⁽e) Holt v. Holt, 1 Ch. Ca. 190; Coppin v. Fernyhough, 2 B. C. C. 291; and, as to renewal fund, see Maddy v. Hale, L. R. 3 Ch. Div. 327. (f) Norris v. Caledonian Insurance Company, L. R. 8 Eq. 127; Gill v. Downing, L. R. 17 Eq. 316.
(g) Thornbrough v. Baker, 2 L. C. 1046.

⁽h) 37 & 38 Vict. c. 78, ss. 4, 5.

money, but of course should not do so if the locality of the legal estate is known, and there is no disability.

Before concluding this chapter, it may be usefully Equity's pointed out that the constructive trusts exemplified constructing above are constructed by the court of equity in the trusts, exfollowing manner:-First of all, equity asks, Who illustrated. has got the legal estate, i.e., to whom does the property belong at law, apart from all equitable considerations? That matter being once ascertained, the court of equity acknowledges the legal ownership, and without impugning same welcomes it rather, and makes a foundation of it, upon which to build up, that is, to construct the trust for which it perceives an equity. Thus, in the case of the vendor's lien (being Constructive Trust, No. I. a. supra), the court of equity finds the legal estate in the vendee inasmuch as the vendor has already conveyed same to him; and then the court founds upon the vendee, as having the legal estate, the equitable lien or charge for the unpaid purchasemoney. So again, in the case of the vendee's lien, (being Constructive Trust, No. 1, b) the court of equity finds the legal estate in the vendor, inasmuch as he has not yet conveyed same to the vendee; and then the court founds upon the vendor as still having the legal estate, the equitable lien or charge for the prematurely paid purchase-money. Similarly, in all the other cases,—it being, in fact, the rule of the court of equity to found upon the legal estate only,—a rule the forgetting or the ignorance of which occasions not only unnecessary difficulty to the student, but oftentimes mistakes in the conduct of actual legal business.

CHAPTER VI.

TRUSTEES AND OTHERS STANDING IN A FIDUCIARY RELATION.

Who may be trustees.

A TRUSTEE should be a person capable of taking and holding the legal estate, and possessed of natural capacity and legal ability to execute the trust, and should (for reasons of convenience) be domiciled within the jurisdiction of the English courts of equity (a). A corporation as to lands (b), a feme covert (c), and an infant (d), as to both real and personal estate, are, on account of their several disabilities, unsuited to hold, but none of them are incapable of holding, the office of trustee. Since the Naturalisation Act, 1870 (e), an alien is apparently as capable as a native-born person of acting as trustee.

Equity never wants a trustee. It is a general rule in courts of equity, that wherever a trust exists, either by the declaration of the party, or by intendment or implication of law, and the party creating the trust has not appointed any trustee to execute it, equity will follow the legal estate, and decree the person in whom it is vested (not being a bonâ fide purchaser for valuable consideration without notice, or otherwise entitled to protection) (f), to execute the trust. For it is a rule in equity which admits of

⁽a) Lewin on Trustees, 27.

⁽b) Ibid. 27, 29.

 ⁽c) Lake v. De Lambert, 4 Ves. 595.
 (d) Hearle v. Greenbank, 3 Atk. 712.

⁽e) 33 & 34 Vict. c. 14, s. 2; as to old law see Gilb. on Uses, 43; Fish v. Klein, 2 Mer. 431.

⁽f) Thorndike v. Hunt, 3 De G. & J. 563; Salisbury v. Bagott, 2 Swanst. 608.

no exception, that a court of equity never wants a trustee. And this rule is applied where property has been bequeathed in trust, without the appointment of a trustee; if it is personal estate, the personal representative is deemed the trustee; and if real estate, the heir or devisee is deemed the trustee; and in either case, the trustee is bound to the due execution of the trust. The lapse of the legal estate never has the least influence upon the trusts to which it is subject; if the individuals named as trustees fail either by death, or by being under disability, or by refusing to act, the court will provide a trustee; if no trustees are appointed at all, the Court of Chancery assumes the office in the first instance; if the trust cannot be executed through the medium which was in the primary view of the testator, it must be executed through the medium appointed by the Court of Chancery. The trustee is, in fact, a mere machine, but a machine that In what sense acts according to the rules of equity, and departs therethe servant, from at his own particular peril, although at the same and in what sense the consensus of the same and in what sense the consensus of the same and in what sense the consensus of the same and in what sense the consensus of the same and in what sense the consensus of the same and in what sense the consensus of the same and in what sense the consensus of the same and in what sense the consensus of the same and in what sense the same and time he is the servant of his cestui que trust for the troller, of his time being. By "cestui que trust" is here meant, not one trust. person having only a partial beneficial interest in the trust fund,—for the trustee is not the servant but the controller of such partiary or partial beneficiary. but the aggregate body of persons (born and unborn) that make up the entirety of the persons entitled, or who may be or become entitled, to any beneficial interest in the trust property as such. And even the person for whom he shall be trustee depends entirely upon the will of such cestui que trust, whether entitled under the original creation of the trust, or by subsequent devolution or transfer (g); and on the death of one trustee, the entire responsibilities survive (h).

The cestuis que trustent, or any one or more of them, Trustee may

⁽g) 2 Sp. 876; Att.-Gen. v. Downing, Wilm. 23. (h) Att.-Gen. v. Gleg, I Atk. 356.

be compelled to any act of duty.

Or restrained

Trustee cannot renounce after acceptance.

are entitled to file a bill against the trustee, to compel him to the execution of any particular act of duty, and a fund in the hands of trustees may be bound by the act or assignment of any particular cestui que trust who is sui juris without the consent of the trustees, but only of course to the extent of the beneficial interest of such particular cestui que trust (i). If any cestui que from abuse of his legal title. trust has reason to suppose, and can satisfy the court, that the trustee is about to proceed to an act not authorised by the true scope of the trust, he may obtain an injunction from the court to restrain the trustee from such a wanton exercise of his legal power (j). A trustee who has accepted the trust cannot afterwards renounce it. The only mode in which he can obtain a release is either under the sanction of a court of equity, or by virtue of a special power in the instrument creating the trust, or with the consent of all parties interested in the estate, being sui juris (k): and of these three modes of release, the second one is usually the only one unattended with expense. As regards the first mode of release, the court will not sanction the release merely because the trustee wishes it; and as regards the third mode of release, it is rarely, if ever, the certain fact that all the cestuis que trust are sui juris or even vet in existence.

Trustee cannot delegate his office.

The office of trustee being one of personal confidence cannot be delegated. Trustees, who take on themselves the management of property for the benefit of others, have no right to shift their duty on other persons, and if they do so, they remain subject to responsibility towards their cestui que trust for whom

⁽i) Donaldson v. Donaldson, Kay, 711.
(j) Balls v. Strutt, 1 Hare, 146; Lewin on Tr. 613.
(k) Manson v. Baillie, 2 Macq. H. L. Cas. 80; Lewin on Tr. 204.

they have undertaken the duty (1). The incapacity of the trustee to delegate his office is to be understood of a trustee being and remaining one; because of course under a special power in that behalf, he may otherwise retire altogether from the trust and appoint a new trustee in his place, and in that way delegate (in one sense) the entire trust. But the trustee who does not resign altogether cannot delegate in part, for the reasons stated, and upon the maxim, "Delegatus non potest delegare," which although ridiculed by Bentham as a "fallacy of rhythm," is based and maintained in English law upon sound and enduring reasons.

But trustees and executors may justify their admini- Delegation stration of the trust-fund by the instrumentality of where there others, where there exists a moral necessity for it. necessity Necessity, which includes the regular course of business, for it. will exonerate. Thus, if "an executor living in London is to pay debts in Suffolk, and remits money to his co-executor to pay those debts, he is considered to do this of necessity, he could not transact business without trusting some person, and it would be impossible for him to discharge his duty, if he is made responsible when he remitted money to a person to whom he would on the like occasion have himself given credit, and would in his own business have remitted money in the same way" (m).

Trustees (whether or not being also executors) are The care and bound to take the same care of trust property, as a dilligence required of man of ordinary caution would take of his own; and trustees, if they have done so they will not be liable for any

as regards,-

⁽l) Turner v. Corney, 5 Beav. 517; Bostock v. Floyer, L. R. 1 Eq. 26; Euves v. Hickson, 30 Beav. 136. (m) Joy v. Campbell, 1 Sch. & Lef. 341; Clough v. Bond, 3 My. &

Cr. 497; Ex parte Belchier, Amb. 219.

(a.) Duties.

accidental loss; as, for instance, by a robbery of the property while in their own possession (n), or by a robbery or loss, whilst in the possession of others with whom it has necessarily, i.e., in the ordinary course of business, been entrusted (o). But the court, in determining the liability or non-liability of a trustee for any loss sustained by the trust estate, distinguishes between the duties imposed upon and the discretions vested in him as such. And as regards his duties, the utmost diligence in observing same (i.e., exacta diligentia) is his only protection against liability for any loss; while as regards his discretions, or discretionary powers, an amount of diligence equal to what he bestows on his own property will protect him from liability. Thus, firstly, as regards duties, if a trustee or executor permit the trust-fund to remain unnecessarily, or contrary to his duty, in the hands of third parties, as, for instance, if money be left in the hands of a banker more than a year after the testator's death, and after the debts, &c., have been paid (p); or if a trustee mix trust property with his own (q), or parts with his exclusive control over the fund, by associating with himself the authority of another person (r); or if the fund be left to the entire control of a co-trustee (s), it will be at his risk (t). But, secondly, as regards discretions, e.g., if, under the investment clause in the will or settlement, he has the power of investing in any one or more at his discretion of certain specified funds comprising good, bad, and indifferent securities, and he invests (say, at the request of an importunate cestui que trust) part of the trust funds in Turkish Bonds as being one of the authorised invest-

(b.) Discre-

tions.

⁽n) Morley v. Morley, 2 Ch. Ca. 2.
(o) Jones v. Lewis, 2 Ves. 240; Swinfen v. Swinfen, 29 Beav. 211.
(p) Darke v. Martyn, 1 Beav. 525.

⁽p) Durke v. Busy, 1 Bear. 525.
(q) Lupton v. Whitz, 15 Ves. 432.
(r) Salway v. Salway, 2 Russ. & My. 215.
(s) Clough v. Bond, 3 My. & Cr. 490.
(t) Castle v. Warland, 32 Beav. 660; Lunham v. Blundell, 27 L. J. Ch. 179; Matthews v. Brise, 6 Beav. 239; 22 & 23 Vict., c. 35, s. 31.

ments, then he will be liable, if he would not have invested his own moneys in that class of investment; but otherwise he will not be liable, even in the case of a loss to the trust estate (u).

It is an established rule that trustees, executors, or No remuneraadministrators, or others standing in a similar situa- to trustee. tion, shall have no allowance for their care and trouble. and this proceeds upon the well-known principle of equity, that a trustee shall not profit by his trust (v). So strict is this rule, that although a trustee or executor may, by the direction of the author of the trusts, have carried on a trade or business at a great sacrifice of time, he will be allowed nothing as compensation for his personal trouble or loss of time (w). And a solicitor, who is a trustee, is not entitled to solicitor-truscharge for business done by him in relation to the tee allowed only for costs trust, except for his costs out of pocket only, unless out of pocket. there is a provision in the instrument creating the trust, enabling him to receive remuneration for the transaction of such business (x), and even where a

solicitor is appointed executor, and is to be "at liberty to charge for professional services, he can only charge for services strictly professional, and not for matters which an executor ought to have done without the intervention of a solicitor, such as for attendances to pay premiums on policies, or attending at the bank to make transfers, &c. (y),—wherefore the will or settlement should give to the solicitor-trustee a wide liberty in this respect, extending as well to professional business

as also to business in and about the trust although not strictly professional.

⁽u) Tabor v. Brooks, 10 Ch. Div. 273; In re Norrington, Bindley v. Partridge, W. N. 1879, 37.
(v) Robinson v. Pett, 2 L. C. 207; Hamilton v. Wright, 9 Cl. & F.

III.

⁽w) Brocksopp v. Barnes, 5 Madd. 90.

⁽x) Broughton v. Broughton, 5 De G. M. & G. 160.

⁽y) Harbin v. Darby, 28 Beav. 325.

Trustees may stipulate to receive compensation.

Although trustees or executors will not in general be entitled to any allowance for their trouble, there is nothing to prevent them contracting with their cestui que trust, to receive some compensation for the performance of the duties of the trust. But such a contract would be very jealously scrutinised by a court of equity, and if there be any appearance of unfairness, or unconscionable advantage on the part of the trustee, the agreement will not be enforced (z).

Trustee must not make anv advantage out of his trust.

the shooting.

In further illustration of the maxim that a trustee shall not make a profit by his trust, may be mentioned those cases where one, in a fiduciary position, uses that position as a means of obtaining any profit or advantage which he would not otherwise obtain. It was upon this principle that Lord Eldon in one case (a.) Not enjoy directed an inquiry whether the liberty of sporting over the trust estate could be let for the benefit of the cestui que trust, and in the meantime the trustee was to appoint a gamekeeper for the preservation of the game, but was not to keep up an establishment for his, the trustee's, own pleasure (a).

(b.) Not charge more than he gave for the purchase of debts.

If trustees or executors buy up any debt or encumbrance to which the trust estate is liable, for a less sum than is actually due thereon, they will not be allowed to take the benefit to themselves, but the creditors or legatees, or other cestuis que trust, shall have the advantage of it (b).

(c.) Not take instead.

Again, if a trustee or executor use the fund comtrade profits, paying interest mitted to his care in buying and selling land, or in stock speculations, or lay out the trust-money in a commercial adventure, as in fitting out a vessel for a voyage, or if he employ it in business, in all these

⁽z) Ayliffe v. Murray, 2 Atk. 58.

⁽a) Webb v. Earl of Shaftesbury, 7 Ves. 480-488.

⁽b) Pooley v. Quilter, 4 Drew. 184, 2 De G. & Jo. 327; Fosbrooke v. Ba'guy, 1 My. & K. 226.

cases, while the executor or trustee is liable for all losses, the cestui que trust may insist either on having the trust-fund replaced with interest, or on having the profits made by the trust-funds so employed (c).

So, likewise, a person standing in a fiduciary relation Trustee cantowards another will not be allowed to benefit by his not renew his lease in his trust, by obtaining a renewal of a lease in his own own name. name, but will be deemed in equity to be a trustee for or purchase those interested in the original term (d), nor will a trust-estate. trustee, as a general rule, be permitted to purchase the trust estate from his cestui que trust (e).

The foregoing principles apply to constructive Same printrustees, as agents (f), guardians (g), partners (h) agents, &c. directors of companies (i), and even promoters of companies (i), and generally, to all persons clothed with a fiduciary character. All such persons must refund all profits improperly made at the expense of the trust-estate, and will not be allowed, as a general rule, any remuneration for their trouble (k).

However, under exceptional circumstances, trustees Exceptional and other persons standing in the like fiduciary relation, trustee's purmay effectively and securely purchase from their cestuis chase from cestui que trust que trustent, e.g., (I) If the trustee will give more for holds good. the trust estate than any other purchaser, in other words, if he will give a "fancy-price" for it, or (2) If

⁽c) Docker v. Somes, 2 My. & K. 655; Townend v. Townend, 1 Giff.

⁽c) Docker v. Bomes, 2 my. a 11. 055, 1 venture v. 201; Willett v. Blanford, 1 Hare, 253.
(d) Keech v. Sandford, 1 L. C. 46.
(e) Fox v. Mackreth, 1 L. C. 123.
(f) Morret v. Paske, 2 Atk. 54; Kimber v. Barber, L. R. 8, Ch. 56; Macpheron v. Watt, 3 App. Ca. 254.

(g) Powell v. Glover, 3 P. W. 252 n.

(h) Wedderburn v. Wedderburn, 4 My. & Cr. 41.

⁽i) Gt. Luxembourg Rail. Co. v. Magnay, 25 Beav. 586. (j) Bagnall v. Carlton, 6 Ch. Div. 371; New Sombrero Co. v. Erlan-

ger, 5 Ch. Div. 73; 3 App. Ca. 1218.
(k) Docker v. Somes, 2 My. & K. 665; Foster v. M'Kinnon, 5 Gr. 510; Imperial Mercantile Credit Association v. Coleman, L. R. 6 H. L. 189.

the offer to sell proceeds from the cestuis que trustent, and the trustee pays the ordinary value in the market, keeping (as it is absurdly said) his cestuis que trustent at arm's length, or (3) If the sale is by public auction, and the trustee has the leave of the court to bid,—then, and in any of these cases, the purchase by the trustee will hold good (l).

Constructive, not liable to same extent as express, trustee.

Remarks of Lord Westbury in *Knox* v. Gye.

Time runs in favour of constructive trustee, although not in favour of express trustee.

Furthermore, if a person does not fill any expressly fiduciary character, as that of trustee or executor, but is merely a constructive trustee, his liabilities are in some respects different from those of an express trustee. His duties and responsibilities are matters of quasicontract, and he is, as it appears, not bound by many of the rules which equity has annexed to the express fiduciary relation. The distinction is clearly drawn in Lord Westbury's judgment in Knox v. Gue (m). There it was attempted to be argued, that a surviving partner was a trustee of the share of his deceased partner, but his Lordship, after adverting to the case of vendor and purchaser, and stating, that there, though the vendor might by a metaphor be called a trustee, he was a trustee only to the extent of his obligation to perform the agreement between himself and the purchaser, proceeded as follows:- "In like manner here, the surviving partner may be called a trustee for the dead man, but the trust is limited to the discharge of an obligation, which is liable to be barred by lapse of time. As between the express trustee and cestui que trust, time will not run, but the surviving partner is not a trustee in that full and proper sense. It is most important to mark this again and again, for there is not a more fruitful source of error in law than the inaccuracy of language. The application to a man, who is improperly and by metaphor only called a trustee, of all the consequences which would follow if he were a trustee by

⁽¹⁾ Hickley v. Hickley, L. R. 2 Ch. Div. 190.

⁽m) L. R. 5 H. L. 656, 675; Noyes v. Crawley, 10 Ch. Div. 31.

express declaration—in other words, a complete trustee -holding the property exclusively for the benefit of the cestui que trust, well illustrates the remark made by Lord Macclesfield, that nothing in law is so apt to mislead as a metaphor " (n).

Similarly, where a person is merely a constructive Constructive trustee, as having employed the money of another in a trustee may have remunetrade or business, although he must account for the ration for time and skill. profits of the money he has employed, he may have an allowance made to him for his loss of time and for his skill and trouble (o).

In Townley v. Sherborne (p), the extent of the re-One trustee sponsibility of one trustee for the acts or defaults of is liable for his co-trustee, his co-trustee was first discussed. A., B., C., and D. -practically. were trustees of some leasehold premises. A. and B. collected the rents during the first year and a half, and signed acquittances, but from that period the rents were uniformly received by an assign of C. liability of A. and B. during the first year and a half was undisputed, but the question was raised whether they were not also chargeable with the rents which had accrued subsequently, but had never come to their hands? After much consideration, the judges resolved: —That where lands are conveyed to two or more upon trust, and one of them receives all or the most part of the profits, and after dieth or decayeth in his estate, his co-trustees shall not be charged or be compelled in the Court of Chancery to answer for the receipts of him so dying or decayed, unless some practice, fraud, or evil-dealing appears to have been in them, to prejudice the trust, for they being by law joint-tenants,

⁽n) Taylor v. Taylor, 28 L. T. N.S. 189; Edwards v. Warden, 22 W. R. 669.

⁽o) Brown v. Litton, I P. W. 140; Brown v. De Tastet, Jac. 284; Docker v. Somes, 2 M. & K. 655.

⁽p) 2 L. C. 870; and see Lewis v. Nobbs, 8 Ch. Div. 591.

or tenants in common, every one by law may receive either all or as much of the profits as he can come by; it is no breach of trust to permit one of the trustees to receive all, or the most part of the profits, it falling out many times that some of the trustees live far from the lands, and are put in trust out of other respects than to be troubled with the receipt of the profits. But it was also resolved:—That if upon the proof of circumstances, the court should be satisfied that there had been any dolus malus, or any evil practice, fraud, or ill intent in him that permitted his companion to receive the whole profits, he should be charged though he received nothing (q). And it was, in fact, decided in Townley v. Sherborne, that if a trustee joined with his co-trustees in signing receipts, he was liable, even though he had received nothing,—the liability arising not from his mere signing of the receipts (because, of course, it was his duty to do that), but from his subsequently leaving in the hands of his co-trustees the money that had been received (which, as we have just seen, it was a violation of his duty to do).

"Signing for conformity,"—effect of (1.) By itself alone.

And, in fact, in later times the rule has been established that a trustee who joins in a receipt for conformity, but without receiving, shall not by that circumstance alone, be rendered liable for a misapplication by the trustee who receives, for "it seems to be substantial injustice to decree a man to answer for money which he did not receive, at the same time that the charge upon him, by his joining in the receipts, is but notional" (r). Where the administration of the trust is vested in co-trustees, a receipt for money paid to the account of the trust must be authenticated by the signature of all the trustees in this their joint capacity, and it would be tyranny to punish a trustee

⁽q) Mucklow v. Fuller, Jac. 198; Booth v. Booth, 1 Beav. 125.
(r) Fellows v. Mitchell, 1 P. W. 81; In re Fryer, 3 K. & J. 317.

for an act, which the very nature of his office will not permit him to decline (s),—scil., where that act is not coupled with any breach of duty arising subsequently. (2.) When At law, where trustees join in a receipt, primâ facie coupled with all are to be considered as having received the money. neglect of duty. But it is competent to a trustee, and, if he means to exonerate himself from that inference, it is necessary for him, to show that the money acknowledged to have been received by all, was in fact received by one, and he himself joined only for conformity (t). But that means of exoneration from subsequent loss is in general of little worth, the subsequent loss commonly proceeding from a subsequent neglect of duty by the non-receiving but signing trustee. For though a trustee is safe if he does no more than authorise the receipt and retainer of the money by his co-trustee, yet he will not be justified in allowing the money to remain in his hands for a longer period than the circumstances of the case reasonably require (u), e.g., a fortnight's neglect may occasion all the loss.

Co-executors on the other hand are generally answer- One executor able each for his own acts only, and not for the acts for his coof their co-executors (v). For in respect of receipts, the executor,—practically. case of co-executors is materially different from that of co-trustees, and this difference arises not from any principle, but from the different powers with which co-trustees and co-executors are respectively invested by the law, so that a particular circumstance which would afford a presumption of the performance of an act involving responsibility in the case of an executor, would not afford any presumption thereof in the case of a trustee. An executor has, independently of his

⁽s) Lewin, 215.
(t) Brice v. Stokes, z L. C. 877; 11 Ves. 319.
(u) Brice v. Stokes, ubi supra; Thompson v. Finch, 8 De G. M. & G.

^{560;} Walker v. Symonds, 3 Swanst. 1; Hanbury v. Kirkland, 3 Sim. 265.

⁽v) Williams v. Nixon, 2 Beav. 472.

Onus on executor joining in receipt to prove that he did not receive.

co-executor, a full and absolute control over the personal assets of the testator, and is competent to give valid discharges by his own separate act. If, therefore, an executor join with a co-executor in a receipt, he does an unnecessary act, and will therefore be prima facie answerable for the application of the fund (w). In Westley v. Clarke (x), this general rule was thus exemplified. T., one of three executors, had called in a sum of money, secured by mortgage of a term of years, and received the amount, and afterwards, but the same day, sent round his clerk to his co-executors, with a particular request that they would execute the assignment and sign the receipt, which they accordingly did. T. afterwards became bankrupt, and the money was lost, and thereupon a bill was filed to charge the coexecutors. Lord Northington said—"If it plainly appears that only one executor received and discharged the estate indebted, and assigned the security, and the others joined afterwards without any reason and without being in a capacity to control the act of their co-executor, either before or after the act was done. what ground has any court of conscience to charge them? The only act that affected the assets was the first that discharged the debt." His Lordship was therefore of opinion that the executors were not liable for the misapplication by their co-executor.

True rule as to receipts by executors. The rule, as now recognised, is best explained by Lord Redesdale in Joy v. Campbell (y),—" The distinction," he observes, "seems to be this, with respect to mere signing; that if the receipt be given for the purpose of mere form, then the signing will not charge the person not receiving; but if it be given under circumstances purporting that the money, though not actually received by both executors, was under the control of both, such a receipt shall charge; and the true question in all

⁽w) Brice v. Stokes, II Ves. 319. (x) I Eden 357. (y) I Sch. & Lef. 341.

these cases seems to have been, whether the money was under the control of both executors" (2).

An express clause is usually inserted in trust-deeds, Indemnity that one trustee shall not be answerable for the clauses, - utility of, in receipts, acts, or defaults of his co-trustees, but for general. his own acts and defaults only. But equity infuses such a proviso into every trust-deed (a), and a person can have no better right from the expression of that which, if not expressed, would be implied (b). And now, by Lord St. Leonards' Act (c), every instrument creating a trust shall be deemed to contain the usual indemnity and re-imbursement clauses, and therefore, in future, the express introduction of them into deeds and wills may be safely dispensed with. But it is to be noted, of course, that the very generality of the usual indemnity clause, augurs it of little worth as a protection,—as it does not extend to cover the trustee's neglect of a trustee's duties, one of which (as already shown) is not to leave the money in the sole control of his co-trustee.

That being so, it is not unusual to insert in deeds wilkins v. and wills an indemnity clause of somewhat wider Hogg, -exreach. Thus, in the case of Wilkins v. Hogg (d), a extensive indemnity testatrix, by her will in 1854, after appointing three clause. trustees, declared each trustee should be answerable only for losses arising from his own default, and not for involuntary acts, or for the acts or defaults of his co-trustees; and particularly that any trustee who should pay over to his co-trustee, or should do or concur in any act enabling his co-trustee to receive any moneys for the general purposes of her will, should not be obliged to see

(2) Walker v. Symonds 3 Swanst. I; Hovey v. Blakeman, 4 Ves. 608.
(a) Dawson v. Clarke, 18 Ves. 254.
(b) Worrall v. Harford, 8 Ves. 8; Rehden v. Wesley, 29 Beav. 213.

⁽c) 22 and 23 Vict., c. 35, s. 31. (d) 8 Jur. N.S. 25; 3 Giff. 116.

to the due application thereof, nor should such trustee be subsequently rendered responsible by any express notice or intimation of the actual misapplication of the same The three trustees joined in signing and giving receipts to two insurance companies for two sums of money paid by them, but two of the trustees permitted their co-trustee to obtain, and afterwards to retain, the money without ascertaining whether he had invested it. That trustee having misapplied the money, a bill was filed for the purpose of making his cotrustees personally liable. Lord Westbury, C., held that they were not liable. His Lordship said—"This clause excluded the possibility of any liability except for actual misappropriation. There were three modes in which a trustee would become liable according to the ordinary rules of law,-first, where, being the recipient, he hands over the money without securing its due application; secondly, where he allows a co-trustee to receive money without making due inquiry as to his dealing with it; and thirdly, where he becomes aware of a breach of trust, either committed or meditated, and abstains from taking the needful steps to obtain resti-The framer of the clause under tution or redress. examination knew these three rules, and used words sufficient to meet all these cases. There remained. therefore, only personal misconduct, in respect of which a trustee, acting under this will, would be responsible. He would still be answerable for collusion if he handed over trust-money to his co-trustee, with reasonable ground for believing, or with a suspicion, that that trustee would commit a breach of trust; but no such case as this has been made by the bill."

Duties of trustees, towards securing the trust property.

The two primary duties of a trustee are, first, to carry out the directions of the person creating the trust, and secondly, to place the trust property in a state of security.

Thus, if a trust-fund be an equitable interest, of (1.) Reduction which the legal estate cannot at present be transferred into possession or quasito an encumbrancer, it is the trustee's duty to lose no possession. time in giving notice of his own interest to the person in whom the legal interest is vested; for, otherwise, he who created the trust might subsequently encumber adversely the interest he has settled, in favour of a purchaser without notice, who, by first giving notice to the legal holder, might gain a priority (e).

If the trust-fund be a chose in action, as a debt which may be reduced into possession, it is the trustee's duty to be active in getting it in, and any unnecessary delay in this respect will be at his own personal risk(f).

An executor is not to allow the assets of the tes- (2.) Realisation of moneys tator to remain outstanding upon personal security, outstanding on though the debt was a loan by the testator himself on security. what he deemed an eligible investment (a). Where the trust-money cannot be applied, either immediately or by a short day, to the purposes of the trust, it is the duty of the trustee to make the fund productive to the cestui que trust, by the investment of it on some proper security. The trustee is not justifiable in lending on personal security, however good (h), unless expressly empowered to do so by the instrument creating the trust (i).

In the absence of any express power created by (3.) Investthe settlement, and independently of any power which funds in the may be given by any statute for the time being in securities.

⁽e) Jacob v. Lucas, I Beav. 436.

⁽f) Grove v. Pricé, 26 Beav. 103. (g) Paddon v. Richardson, 7 De G. M. & G. 563; Clough v. Bond, 3 My. & Cr. 496.

⁽h) Geaves v. Strahan, 8 De G. M. & G. 291. (i) Paddon v. Richardson, 7 De G. M. & G. 563.

force, trustees, executors, or administrators, should invest on mortages of real estate in England, or in Government securities, or in Consolidated Bank Annuities (j).

Range of investments authorised by statute, for trust-moneys.

However, by Lord St. Leonards' Act, 22 and 23 Vict., c. 35, s. 32, trustees, executors, and administrators, where not expressly forbidden by the instrument creating the trust, are authorised to invest trustfunds on real securities in any part of the United Kingdom, or in the stock of the Bank of England or Ireland, or in the East India Stock (k). Also, by Lord Cranworth's Act, 23 & 24 Vict., c. 145, s. 25, it is enacted that trustees, having trust-money in their hands which it is their duty to invest at interest, shall be at liberty, at their discretion, to invest the same in any of the parliamentary stocks or public funds, or in Government securities, and such trustees shall also be at liberty, at their discretion, to call in any trust-funds invested in any other securities than as aforesaid, and to invest the same in any such securities as aforesaid, but no such change of investment as aforesaid shall be made (except in the Three per Cent. Consolidated Bank Annuities), where there is a person under no disability entitled in possession to receive the income of the trust-fund for his life, or for a term of years determinable with his life, or for any greater estate, without the consent, in writing, of such person. Also, by statute 30 & 31 Vict., c. 132, s. 2, it is enacted (although somewhat unnecessarily) that, except where expressly forbidden by the instrument creating the trust. "it shall be lawful for every trustee, executor, or administrator, to invest any trust-fund in his possession

⁽j) Baud v. Fardell, 7 De G. M. & G. 628.
(k) See 23 & 24 Vict., c. 38, s. 12. General order under this Act, dated 1st Feb. 1861; 30 & 31 Vict., c. 132, s. 1, which extends the power of investment to East India Stocks created after the date of 22 & 23 Vict., c. 35. Lewin on Trusts, 252; In re Wedderburn's Trusts, 9 Ch. Div. 112.

or under his control in any securities, the interest of which shall be guaranteed by Parliament."

Lastly,—By the statute 34 & 35 Vict., c. 27 (The Debenture Stock Act, 1871), it is enacted that trustees. executors, and administrators, having power to invest trust-funds in the mortgages or bonds of any company, shall and may (unless the instrument of trust express to the contrary) invest such funds in the debenturestock of any such company.

As a general rule, where a testator subjects the (4.) Conversion residue of his personal estate to a series of limitations of terminable and reversiondirectly or by way of trust, without any particular ary property, directions as to the investment or mode of enjoyment, in residuary there, in the absence of indications of a contrary in-devise or bequest. tention, such part of the residue as may be wearing out (such as leaseholds), must be converted, and put in such a state of investment as to be securely available for all persons interested in it. And if the residue comprises property of a reversionary nature, that also must be converted. The former of these two rules protects the remainder-man, the latter of them protects the tenant for life (l).

When trustees or executors were directed by the The limit or will to convert the testator's property, and invest it measure of trustee's in Government or real securities, and neglected to do liability for non-investeither, it was for a long time a question whether they ment. should be answerable for the principal money with interest, or the amount of stock which might have been purchased at the period when the conversion should have been made, with subsequent dividends, at the option of the cestui que trust; or whether they

⁽l) 2 Sp. 42, 552, 557; Bate v. Hooper, 5 De G. M. & G. 338; Howe v. Lord Dartmouth, 7 Ves. 137; Porter v. Baddeley, L. R. 5 Ch. Div. 542; Wright v. Lambert, L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 649; and see Macdonald v. Irvine, 8 Ch. Div. 101; Johnson v. Lawson, W. N. 1879,

should be charged with the amount of principal and interest only, without an option to the cestui que trust of taking the stock and dividends. It has now been decided that the trustee is answerable only for the principal money and interest, and that the cestui que trust has no option of taking the stock and dividends. The principle upon which the court proceeds is, that the trustee is liable only for not having done what it was his duty to have done, and the measure of his responsibility is that which the cestui que trust must have been entitled to in whatever mode that duty was performed (m).

Remedies of cestui que trust in event of a breach of ' trust.

It remains to expound the remedies of a cestui que trust, and in the first place to inquire into whose hands the estate may be followed.

(r.) Right of following the trust-estate.

If the alience be a volunteer, then the estate may be followed into his hands whether he had notice of the trust or not(n), and if the alience be a purchaser of the estate, even for valuable consideration, but with notice, the same rule applies (o). If, on the contrary, the alienee be a purchaser for valuable consideration. having the legal estate, and without notice, his title, even in equity, cannot be impeached, and he takes the land freed from the trust (p).

Purchaser with notice cannot protect himself by getting in the legal estate from an express trustee.

If the purchaser has no notice of the trust up to and at the time of completing his purchase, but afterwards discovers the trust, and then obtains a voluntary convevance from the trustee, he could not, even prior to the Vendor and Purchaser's Act, 1874 (q), protect himself

⁽m) Robinson v. Robinson, I De G. M. & G. 247.

⁽n) Spurgeon v. Collier, I Eden. 55.
(o) Wigg v. Wigg, I Atk. 382; Kennedy v. Daly, I Sch. & Lef. 345; Daniels v. Davidson, 16 Ves. 249.
(p) Thorndike v. Hunt, 3 De G. & Jo. 563; Jones v. Powles, 3 My. & K. 581; Pilcher v. Rawtins, L. R. 7 Ch. App. 259; overruling Carter v. Carter, 3 K. & J. 617.

⁽q) 37 & 38 Vict., c. 78.

by taking shelter under the legal estate, so obtained by subsequent voluntary conveyance; for that is not like getting in a first mortgage, which the first mortgagee upon being paid off has a right to transfer to whomsoever he will (r), and here notice of the trust converts the purchaser into a trustee, and he becomes a party to a breach of the trust (s). In consequence of the Vendor and Purchaser's Act, 1874, sect. 7, all protection or priority derivable from getting in the legal estate was abolished as from the 7th August 1874; that section was, however, repealed by the Land Transfer Act, 1875 (t), which came into operation on the 1st January 1876, and the repeal is expressed to be as from the date of the operation of the Act of 1874 (i.e., 7th August 1874), except as to anything duly done under the last-mentioned Act before 1st January 1876. Consequently the old rule, assigning a priority and protection to the legal estate, is again restored; but that priority or protection does not extend (as above mentioned) to the case of a subsequent voluntary conveyance of the legal estate by the trustee thereof, in breach of his trust to an equitable mortgagee, who at the date of obtaining the legal estate has notice of the breach of trust; and Jessel, M. R., has stated it as his opinion, by way of obiter dictum, that even want of notice in such a case would make no difference (u).

The debt created by a breach of trust is regarded Breach of only as a simple contract debt, both at law and in trust creates a simple conequity, even where the trust arises under a deed tract debt. executed by the trustees, unless the trustee who committed such breach of trust has acknowledged the debt under seal (v). But the mere acceptance by deed of the trust will not create a specialty, unless there be

⁽r) Bates v. Johnson, Johns, 304.

⁽s) Sharples v. Adams, 32 Beav. 213; Lewin, 616.

⁽t) 38 & 39 Vict., c. 87.

⁽u) Mumford v. Stohwasser, L. R. 18 Eq. 556.

⁽v) 2 Sp. 936.

a covenant, express or implied, for payment of the trust fund (w). But since the Act(x) abolishing the priority of specialty creditors in the administration of estates of persons dying after the 1st day of January 1870, the distinction is become of little importance -after the decease of the trustee; and since the Judicature Act, 1873 (y), enacting that no claim of a cestui que trust against his trustee held on an express trust, or in respect of any breach of such trust, shall be held to be barred by any statute of limitations, the distinction is deprived of all its importance,-during the life of the trustee and also after his death.

(2.) Right of following the property into which the trust-fund has been converted.

If the trust estate has been tortiously disposed of by the trustee, the cestui que trust may attach and follow the property that has been substituted in the place of the trust estate, so long as the substituted property can be traced (z).

When money, notes, &c., may be followed.

Money, notes, and bills may be followed by the rightful owner, where they have not been circulated or negotiated, or the person to whom they have passed had express notice of the trust (a), and the only difference between money on the one hand and notes and bills on the other, is that money is not earmarked, and therefore cannot, except under particular circumstances, be traced; but notes and bills, from carrying a number or a date, can in general be identified by the owner without difficulty (b). The difficulty of identification does not arise, where the trust property is still in the

⁽w) Isaacson v. Harwood, L. R. 3 Ch. App. 225; Holland v. Holland, L. R. 4 Ch. 449; and see Butler v. Butler, L. R. 5 Ch. Div. 554; and, on appeal, 7 Ch. Div. 116.

on appeal, 7 Ch. Div. 116.

(x) 32 & 33 Vict., c. 46.

(y) 36 & 37 Vict., c. 66, sect. 25, sub-sect. 2, not affected by the Real Property Limitations Act, 1874 (37 & 38 Vict. c. 57) § 10, except as regards trust terms to secure legacy or charge payable out of land.

(z) Lewin, 645; Frith v. Cartland, 2 Hem. & M. 417; Ernest v. Croysdill, 2 De G. F. & J. 175; Hopper v. Conyers, L. R. 2 Eq. 549.

(a) Verney v. Carding. cited Joy v. Campbell, 1 Sch. & Lef. 345.

(b) Lewin, 647; Ford v. Hopkins, 1 Salk. 283.

hands of the trustee; because in laying out trustmoneys, a trustee must be careful to keep his own property separate from the trust-fund; and if he mix them, the *cestui que trust* will be held entitled to every portion of the blended property which the trustee cannot prove to be his own (c).

It may be stated as a general rule, that if a trustee Interest paybe guilty of any unreasonable delay in investing or trustees on transferring the fund, he will be answerable to the a breach of cestui que trust for interest during the period of his laches (d),—the rate being usually four per cent. but sometimes a higher rate.

It is not easy to define the circumstances under When interest which the court will charge executors and trustees with at more than more than four per cent., or with compound interest. charged. The rules on this subject may be thus stated. The court will charge more than four per cent. upon balances in the hands of a trustee (e):—

- (1.) Where he ought to have received more, as where he had improperly called in a mortgage carrying five per cent.
- (2.) Where he had actually received more than four per cent.
- (3.) Where he must be presumed to have received more, as if he has traded with the money, in which case the *cestui que trust* has it at his option to take the profits actually obtained (f).

⁽c) Lupton v. White, 15 Ves. 432; Mason v. Morley, 34 Beav. 471, 475; see also Hastie v. Hastie, L. R. 2 Ch. Div. 304; In re Hallett, W. N., 1879, p. 146; and disting. Fox v. Buckley, L. R. 3 Ch. Div. 508.

⁽d) Stafford v. Fiddon, 23 Beav. 386.
(e) Att. Gen. v. Alford, 4 De G. M. & G. 851; Penny v. Avison, 3 Jur. N.S. 62.

⁽f) Jones v. Foxall, 15 Beav. 392.

(4.) Where the trustee is guilty of direct breaches of trust, or gross misconduct (g).

Acquiescence.

The remedy of a cestui que trust against his trustee for breach of trust of any sort may be barred by the concurrence of the cestui que trust, or by his acquiescence, or by his executing a release (h).

Persons under disability.

Persons under disability, as married women (i), or infants (j), who have concurred in a breach of trust, may nevertheless proceed against the trustees; except where they have by their own fraud induced the trustees to deviate from the proper performance of their duties; and even in that excepted case, married women, at least, may occasionally proceed successfully against the trustee whom they have induced to deviate from his duties,—e.g., where the trust is for the separate use of the married women without power of anticipation (k).

Release and confirmation.

A cestui que trust may, by a release or confirmation, prevent himself from taking proceedings against trustees for a breach of trust (l), but neither will be binding on him unless he had a full knowledge of the facts of the case (m).

Settlement of accounts.

A trustee is entitled to have his accounts examined and to have a settlement of them. If the cestui que

⁽g) Mayor of Berwick v. Murray, 7 De G. M. & G. 519; Townend v. Townend, I Giff. 212.

⁽h) Brice v. Stokes, 2 L. C. 877; Harden v. Parsons, Eden, 145; Burrows v. Walls, 5 De G. M. & G. 233; Farrant v. Blanchford, 1 De G. Jo. & Sm. 107, 119.

⁽i) Parkes v. White, II Ves. 221.

⁽i) Wilkinson v. Parry, 4 Russ. 276.
(i) Savage v. Foster, 9 Mod. 35; Wright v. Snowe, 2 De G. & Sm. 321; In re Lush's Trusts, L. R. 4 Ch. App. 591; Stanley v. Stanley, 26 W. R. 310; 7 Ch. Div. 589.
(i) French v. Hobson, 9 Ves. 103.
(m) Lloyd v. Attwood, 3 De G. & Jo. 650; Kay v. Smith, 21 Beav. 522; Ruspage v. Welle, 5 De G. M. & G. 254.

^{522;} Burrows v. Walls, 5 De G. M. & G. 254.

trust being sui juris, is satisfied that nothing more is due to him, he ought to close the account, and give an acknowledgment equivalent to a release. On the other hand, if the cestui que trust is dissatisfied with the accounts, he ought to have the accounts taken, He is bound to adopt one of these two courses; he is not at liberty to keep a chancery suit hanging for an indefinite time over the head of the trustee (n).

Usually settled accounts are not opened (i.e., taken Surcharging over again throughout, or in toto); but in an action and falsifying. for an account, when the plea of settled accounts is put forward in defence, the practice of the court is, upon proof of one clear omission or insertion that is erroneous, to give liberty to the plaintiff to surcharge the omission and to falsify the insertion, together with all other erroneous omissions and insertions: and this liberty is commonly called "liberty to surcharge and falsify" (o).

⁽n) 2 Sp. 46, 47, 921. (o) Heighington v. Grant, I Phil. 601; Pit v. Cholmondeley, 2 Ves. Sr. 565; Coleman v. Mellersh, 2 M. & G. 309, 314; Drew v. Power, 1 Sch. & Lef. 182; and disting. Blagrave v. Routh, 2 K. & J. 509, 522; and Watson v. Rodwell, 7 Ch. Div. 625; 11 Ch. Div. 150.

CHAPTER VII.

DONATIONES MORTIS CAUSÂ.

Essentials of (1.) Must be made in expectation of death.

It is essential to a valid donatio mortis causâ that it should be made "in such a state of illness or expectation of death, as would warrant a supposition that the gift was made in contemplation of that event (a)."

(2.) On condition to be absolute on donor's death. Revoked by recovery or resumption.

A donatio mortis causâ is always made on the condition, expressed or implied, that the gift shall be absolute only in case of the donor's death, and shall therefore be revocable during his life (b). And if the donor recover from his illness, or if he resume the possession of the gift, it will be defeated (c). In Staniland v. Willot (d), the plaintiff, being possessed of shares in a public company, transferred them when in a state of extreme illness, into the name of the defendant; the plaintiff having recovered, but having subsequently become a lunatic, a bill was filed in his name by his committee to have the defendant declared a trustee of It was held that the plaintiff having the shares. survived the sickness during which the transfer was made, the gift could not operate as a donatio mortis causa; and it appearing that the defendant had received the gift on the distinct understanding that it was to be absolute only in the event of the plaintiff's death, the defendant was held a trustee of the shares for the plaintiff.

⁽a) Edwards v. Jones, · My. & Cr. 233; Duffield v. Elwes, 1 Bligh. N.S. 530.

⁽b) Edwards v. Jones, I My. & Cr. 233.

⁽c) Ward v. Turner, L. C. 983; Bunn v. Markham, 7 Taunt. 231. (d) 3 Mac. & G. 664.

In addition to the two before-mentioned requisites, (3) Delivery there is a further and all-essential requisite, viz., deli-essential. very. For, if the intention be expressed in writing, but no delivery takes place, even though the document be signed by the donor, it will be ineffectual as a donatio mortis causâ, for in fact it is a legacy, and the writing will be held a testamentary document, and therefore, if not attested by two witnesses, as directed by the Wills Act (e), it will be void as a testamentary document (f). And although it might possibly be good as a declaration of trust (q), still that is not at all likely, at least in the general case; for what is clearly intended to operate in one way and fails to do so, is not, as a rule, construed by the court to operate in another way—in favour of a volunteer. And if the gift is made by parol, without delivery of the article, it will be equally ineffectual as a donatio mortis causâ, nor can it possibly operate in such a case, either as a gift inter vivos, or as a testamentary disposition (h).

Donationes mortis causâ are not void by the Wills Acts (i); they are not, in fact, testamentary dispositions at all.

If a donor intends to make a testamentary gift which Imperfect turns out to be ineffectual, it will not be supported as testamentary gift,—not a donatio mortis causâ. Thus in Mitchell v. Smith (j), supported as a donatio mortis A. put into the hands of B. certain promissory notes, causa. saying, "I give you these notes." A., on being reminded that they wanted indorsement, indorsed them in the presence of a witness as follows:—" I bequeath, pay the within contents to B. or his order at my death."

(i) 12 W. R. 941.

⁽e) I Vict. c. 26.

⁽f) Riyden v. Vallier, 2 Ves. Sr. 258; Tapley v. Kent, 1 Rob. 400. (g) Morgan v. Malleson, L. R. 10 Eq. 475.

⁽h) Tate v. Gilbert, 2 Ves. Jr. 120.

⁽i) 1 Vict. c. 26; Moore v. Darlon, 4 De G. & Sm. 519.

Turner, L. J., said, that the indorsement of a promissory note, in order to be effectual, must be such as to enable the indorsee to negotiate the note. It was clear, however, that B. was not intended to have the power of doing this during the testator's life. The language of the indorsement and the evidence showed that a testamentary disposition was intended; and as this was invalid, B. could not take.

Ineffectual gift inter vivos, not supported as a donatio mortis causa.

So also if the donor intends to make a gift inter vivos which is ineffectual, it cannot be supported as a donatio mortis causâ. Thus, in Edwards v. Jones (k), the obligee of a bond, five days before her death, signed a memorandum, not under seal, which was indorsed upon the bond, and which purported to be an assignment of the bond without consideration, to a person to whom the bond was at the same time delivered. circumstances of the transaction did not constitute, in the opinion of the court, a donatio mortis causâ. was also held that the gift was incomplete, and as it was without consideration, the court could not give effect to it. "It is argued," said the learned judge, "that the bonds were delivered either by way of donatio mortis causâ, or as a gift inter vivos. Now, in order to be good as a donatio mortis causâ, the gift must have been made in contemplation of death, and intended to take effect only after the donor's death. If it appeared, however, from the circumstances of the transaction, that the donor really intended to make an immediate and irrevocable gift of the bonds, that would destroy the title of the party who claims them as a donatio mortis causâ.

"In the present case the transaction is in writing, and this is a strong circumstance against the presumption of its being a donatio mortis causâ. Here is an

instrument purporting to be a regular assignment exactly in the same form as where the purpose is absolutely and at once to pass the whole interest in the subject-matter. A party making a donatio mortis causâ does not part with his whole interest, save only in a certain event; and it is of the essence of the gift that it shall not otherwise take effect. gift leaves the whole title in the donor, unless the event occurs which is to divest him. Here, however, there is an attempted actual assignment by which the donor transfers all her right, title, and interest to her niece.

"The transaction being inoperative for the purpose of transferring the bond, which was a mere chose in action, the question comes to be, whether the mere handing over of the bond would constitute a good gift inter vivos. This is a purely voluntary gift, and cannot be made effectual without the interposition of the court. This court will not aid a volunteer to carry into effect an imperfect gift."

If a personal chattel be actually given by the donor What is a himself to the donee, or by some other person at the sufficient dedonor's request, into the hands of the donee, or to (a.) To donee or donee's some other person as trustee or agent for the donee, agent. a good delivery is constituted. In Farquharson v. Cave (l), it was held that a mere delivery to an agent, in the character of an agent for the donor, would amount to nothing; it must be a delivery to the donee, or to the donee's agent (m). Where the chattel (b.) Delivey itself has not been delivered, it would seem that the means of obdelivery of some effective means of obtaining it, would taining the be sufficient, though not the delivery of a mere ineffective symbol (n).

⁽l) 2 Coll. Ch. Ca. 367.

⁽m) Moore v. Darton, 4 De G. & Sm. 517.

⁽n) Ward v. Turner, I L. C. 983; Snellgrove v. Baily, 3 Atk. 214.

If the thing given as a donatio mortis causâ be not a chattel in possession, but a chose in action, delivery of some document essential to the recovery of the chose in action is sufficient. Thus in Moore v. Darton (o), where, on a loan, the borrower had given the lender a receipt in the following terms:—"Received of Miss D. £500, to bear interest at five per cent. per annum," it was held that a delivery of the receipt to an agent of the borrower by the creditor on her deathbed, stating that she wished the debt to be cancelled, was a good donatio mortis causâ.

Examples of imperfect delivery. (a.) Delivery to donor's agent.

In Jones v. Selby (p), the delivery of the key of a box was held to be a sufficient donatio mortis causa of its contents. In Trimmer v. Danby (q), upon the death of a testator, ten Austrian bonds were found, amongst other securities, in a box at his house, with the following indorsement:-"The first five numbers of these Austrian bonds belong to and are H. D.'s property," signed by the testator. H. D. was the testator's housekeeper, and the key of the box was given into her custody. It was held, that as there had been no actual transfer or delivery into the hands of H. D., the bonds still remained part of the testator's assets, the court being of opinion that the testator gave the key to H. D. in her character of housekeeper, and for the purpose of taking care of it for his benefit; the court at the same time assenting that the testator meant to give the bonds to H. D., and that the bonds were capable of being transferred by hand, but maintaining that in cases of this nature it must be proved that there has been an actual transfer of the property, and that everything has been done that is capable of being done to effect that transfer (r)—the mere intention to transfer not being efficacious in favour of a volunteer.

⁽o) 4 De G. & Sm. 519.

⁽q) 25 L. J. Ch. 424.

⁽p) Prec. in Ch. 300.

⁽r) Powell v. Hellicar, 26 Beav. 261.

Not only must possession be given to the donee, but (b.) Delivery to the donor must part with all dominion over the gift. coupled with Thus, in Hawkins v. Blewitt (s), A., being in his last retention of ownership. illness, ordered a box containing wearing apparel to be carried to the defendant's house to be delivered to the defendant, giving no further directions respecting it. On the next day, the defendant brought the key of the box to A., who desired it to be taken back, saying, he should want a pair of breeches out of it. Held, not to be a good donatio mortis causâ, and the learned judge said, "In the case of a donatio mortis causâ, possession must be immediately given; and also in parting with the possession, it is necessary that the donor should part with the dominion over it. It seems rather to have been left in the defendant's care for safe custody, and was so considered by herself"

In connection with the two last-mentioned cases, it should also be borne in mind, that the word "housekeeper" is often a euphemism for females that are not only volunteers, but immoral and greedy persons, and whom, therefore, the court is not well-disposed towards.

There cannot, it seems, be a good donatio mortis What may be causa of railway stock (t); nor of the donor's own given as donacheque upon a banker (u), unless cashed in his life-causa. time or otherwise negotiated (v). There may be a good donatio mortis causâ of a bond (w). The delivery of the mortgage-deeds of a real estate will constitute a valid donatio mortis causâ (x). So also will the de-

⁽s) 2 Esp. 663. (t) Moore v. Moore, L. R. 18 Eq. 474. (u) Tate v. Hilbert, 4 Bro. C. C. 286; Boutts v. Ellis, 4 De G. M. & G. 249; Hewitt v. Kaye, L. R. 6 Eq. 198. (v) Rolls v. Pearce, L. R. 5 Ch. Div. 730. (w) Snellyrove v. Baily, 3 Atk. 214; Gardner v. Parker, 3 Mad. 184. (c) Duffold v. Flora v. Blick. N. S. 407.

⁽x) Duffield v. Elwes, I Bligh. N.S. 497.

livery of a promissory note, payable to order, though not indorsed (y).

How it differs from a legacy, and agrees with a gift inter vivos.

A good donatio mortis causa partakes partly of the character of a gift inter vivos, and partly of that of a legacy. It differs from a legacy, and resembles a gift inter vivos in these respects,—I. It takes effect sub modo from the delivery in the lifetime of the donor, and therefore cannot be proved as a testamentary act. 2. It requires no assent or other act on the part of the executor or administrator to perfect the title of the It differs from a gift inter vivos, and resembles How it resem- donee. a legacy in these respects,—1. It is revocable during the donor's lifetime (z). 2. It may be made even at 3. It is liable to the law to the donor's wife (a). debts of the donor on a deficiency of assets (b). 4. It is subject to legacy duty (c).

bles a legacy and differs from a gift inter vivos.

 ⁽y) Veal v. Veal, 27 Beav. 303.
 (z) Smith v. Casen, cited 1 P. W. 406; Jones v. Selby, Prec. Ch. 300.

⁽a) Tate v. Leithead, Kay, 658. (b) Smith v. Casen, cited I P. W. 406. (c) 8 & 9 Vict., c. 76; 1 Sp. 196.

CHAPTER VIII.

LEGACIES.

No suit will lie at the common law to recover legacies, Suits for legaunless the executor has assented thereto (a), or unless cies only in equity unless the action should be by a legatee against the executors executor asand a debtor as co-defendants, where the executors sents. refuse to sue the debtor (b). But in cases of specific legacies of goods, after the executor has assented thereto, the property vests immediately in the legatee. who may maintain an action at law for the recovery thereof (c). It is not difficult to see the reason why Reasons. it is inexpedient that courts of law should have jurisdiction over legacies. Courts of law cannot (or at all events until recently could not), whereas the courts of equity always could and can, impose such terms as justice may require, upon the parties recovering those legacies; so that, for instance, an action at law might be (or at all events until recently might have been) maintained by a husband, for a legacy given to his wife, without making any provision for her, or for her family; whereas, a court of equity would require such a provision to be made. And even the Court of Probate established by the Court of Probate Act, 1857 (d), although the successor of the ecclesiastical court, is by a proviso in section 23 of that Act (being the section which confers and defines the jurisdiction of the court) expressly excluded from entertaining suits for legacies or suits for the distribution of

⁽a) Deeks v. Strutt, 5 T. R. 690. (b) Yeatman v. Yeatman, 7 Ch. Div. 210; Travis v. Milne, 9 Hare 141. (c) Doe v. Gay, 3 East, 120. (d) 20 & 21 Vict., c. 77.

residues. And under the Judicature Act, 1875 (e), a plaintiff is not to assign his action to the Probate Division of the High Court of Justice unless he would have been entitled, independently of-i.e., previously to—the Judicature Acts, to have commenced his action in the Court of Probate.

Equity jurisdiction .-When exclu-

Where the bequest of a legacy involves the execution of a trust, express or implied, or the legacy is charged on land, or the other courts cannot take due care of the interests of all parties, courts of equity will exert an exclusive jurisdiction. And even where the executor has assented to the legacy, courts of equity will now exercise a concurrent jurisdiction with the other courts over legacies; because the executor is treated as a trustee for the benefit of the legatees, a universal ground for the interposition of equity (f), and also, because the aid of equity may be required to obtain discovery, account, or distribution of assets, or some other mode of relief which other courts are, or were, incompetent to afford.

When concurrent.

Division of legacies.

1. General.

Bequests, or legacies, may be classed under three heads,—general, specific, and demonstrative. A legacy is general, where it does not amount to a bequest of any particular thing as distinguished from all others of the same kind. Thus, if a testator gives A. a diamond ring, or £,1000 stock, or a horse, not referring to any particular diamond ring, stock, or horse, these legacies will be general. The terms, "pecuniary legacies" and "general legacies," are commonly used as synonymous, although "pecuniary legacy," strictly speaking, means only "a legacy of money," and may therefore be either "specific" or "general (q)."

⁽e) 38 & 39 Vict., c. 77, sect. 11, sub-sect. 3.
(f) Hurst v. Beach, 5 Madd. 360.
(g) 1 Rop. Leg., by White, 191 n.; Hawthorn v. Shedden, 3 Sm. & G. 293; Fielding v. Preston, I De G. & Jo. 438.

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A legacy is specific, when it is a bequest of a parti- 2. Specific cular thing, or sum of money, or debt, as distinguished from all others of the same kind. Thus, if a testator gives B. "my diamond ring," "my black horse," "my £1000 stock," or "£1000 contained in a particular bag," or "owing to me by C.," in these and the like instances, the legacies are specific (h).

A legacy is demonstrative, when "it is in its nature 3. Demonstrate a general legacy, but there is a particular fund pointed out to satisfy it (i)." Thus, if a testator bequeaths \mathcal{L}_{1000} out of his Reduced Bank Three Per Cents., the legacy will not be specific, but demonstrative (j).

It is a matter of great practical importance to dis-Distinctions. tinguish these three different species of legacies one from the other. The chief points of difference are .these :- I. If, after payment of debts, there is a deficiency of assets for payment of all the legacies, a general legacy will be liable to abate, but a specific legacy will not. 2. On the other hand, if a specific bequest is made of a chattel or a fund, which fails by alienation during the testator's lifetime, or otherwise. the legatee will not be entitled to any compensation out of the general personal estate of the testator; because nothing but the specific thing is given to the legatee (k). 3. But with regard to a demonstrative legacy, it is so far of the nature of a specific legacy. that it will not abate with the general legacies, until the fund out of which it is payable is exhausted, and it is also so far of the nature of a general legacy, that it will not be liable to ademption by the alienation or non-existence of the property pointed out as the means

⁽h) Stephenson v. Dowson, 3 Beav. 342; Manning v. Purcell, 7 De G. M. & G. 55.

⁽i) Ashburner v. Macguire, 2 L. C. 236; Robinson v. Geldard, 3 Mac. & G. 735.

[&]amp; G. 735.

(j) Sparrow v. Josselyn, 16 Beav. 135.

(k) 1 Rop. Leg., by White, 191-2; Brown's Dict., title Legacies.

of paying it (l), that being only the primary fund for payment.

Construction of legacies.

In deciding on the validity and interpretation of purely personal legacies, courts of equity in general follow the rules of the civil law, as recognised and acted on in the ecclesiastical courts; but as to the validity and interpretation of legacies charged on land, they generally follow the rules of the common law. which endeavour in all cases to favour the heir (m). Accordingly, the courts favour the vesting of legacies if not charged on land, whereby they become transmissible to the personal representatives of the legatee should he die before the time of payment (n); but the courts have also persistently held, that a legacy payable out of land, although it is vested in one sense, yet sinks for the benefit of the inheritance in case the legatee dies before the period of payment (o), unless where that period is postponed for adventitious reasons (p). Again, legacies charged on land carry interest as from the date of the testator's death (q); on the other hand, general legacies, not so charged, carry interest as from one year after the testator's decease (r), but a general legacy given in satisfaction of a debt carries interest as from the death (s), as does also a general legacy to an infant child not otherwise provided for (t).

Nota Bene. - Specific legacies carry interest from

⁽l) Rop. Leg., by White, 237; see generally, Mullins v. Smith, I Drew & Sm. 210; Vickers v. Pound, 6 H. L. Cas. 885.

⁽m) See Hawkins on Construction of Wills; Brown's Law Dictionary, title Legacies.

⁽n) Harrison v. Foreman, 5 Ves. 207. (o) Pawlett v. Pawlett, 1 Vern. 321.

⁽p) King v. Withers, 3 P. Williams, 414. (q) Maxwell v. Wettenhall, 2 P. Williams 26. (r) Child v. Elsworth, 2 De G. M. & G., 679.

⁽s) Clark v. Sewell, 3 Atk. 99. (t) Newman v. Bateson, 3 Sw. 689.

the death (u); and demonstrative legacies, so long as their proper fund remains, carry interest like specific, and afterwards like general legacies (v). The rate of interest is 4 per cent. (w).

⁽u) Barrington v. Tristram, 6 Ves. 345. (v) Mullins v. Smith, 1 Dr. & Sm. 210. (w) Wood v. Bryant, 2 Atk. 523.

CHAPTER IX.

CONVERSION.

General rule.

Money into land.

Land into money.

"Nothing is better established than this principle, "that money directed to be employed in the purchase of

"land, and land directed to be sold and turned into "money, are to be considered as that species of property

- "into which they are directed to be converted, and this in whatever manner the direction is given, whether by "will, or by contract, or in marriage articles or marriage
- "settlement, or otherwise; and whether the money is
- "actually paid or only covenanted to be paid; and "whether the land is actually conveyed, or only agreed to
- "be conveyed, the owner of the fund, or the contracting "parties, may make land money, or money land" (a).

Conversion.

By will or settlement. This notional conversion of land into money, or of money into land, may arise in two ways; firstly, under wills; secondly, under deeds. It is proposed to treat the subject under the following heads,—distinguishing between deeds and wills:—

- 1. What words are sufficient to produce conversion;
 - 2. From what time conversion takes place;
 - 3. The general effects of conversion; and
- 4. The results of a total or partial failure of the objects and purposes for which conversion has been directed.

⁽a) Fletcher v. Ashburner, I L. C. 898.

1. What words are sufficient to produce conversion.

The direction to convert either money into land, or are sufficient. land into money, must be imperative: for if the directo convert tion to convert be merely optional, the property will perative, be considered as real or personal, according to the ac- (1.) Express; tual condition in which it is found. Thus, in Curling v. May (b), A. gave £500 to B. in trust, that B. should lay out the same upon a purchase of lands, or put the same out on good securities, for the separate use of his daughter H. (the plaintiff's then wife), her heirs, executors, and administrators, and died in 1720. 1731, H., the daughter, died, without issue, before the money was invested in a purchase. The husband. as administrator, brought a bill for the money against the heir of H., and the money was decreed to the husband-administrator; for the wife not having signified any intention of a preference, the court would take the money as it was found: if the wife had signified any intention, that intention would have been observed, but it was not reasonable at that time to give either her heir, or her administrator, or the trustee the liberty to elect; for Lord Talbot said, it was originally personal estate, and yet remained so, and nothing could be collected from the will as to what was the testator's principal intention (c).

What words

But although the conversion is apparently optional, or (2.) Imas where trustees are directed to lay out personality, where limita-"either in the purchase of lands of inheritance, or at tions are interest," or "in land or some other securities," as to land, or they shall think most fit and proper, yet if the limita-vice versa. tions and trusts of the money directed to be laid out are only adapted to real estates, so as to denote the testator's intention that land shall be purchased, this circumstance will outweigh the presumed option, and the money will be considered land (d). And, of course

adapted only

⁽b) Cited 3 Atk. 255. (c) Bourne v. Bourne, 2 Hare, 35. (d) Earlow v. Saunders, Amb. 241.

the like rule will apply to the converse case, i.e., when the limitations are (although they seldom are) exclusively applicable to personal estate. In short, in any case where it is clear that a testator, whatever may be the language he has used, intended that a conversion should take place at all events, equity holding the doctrine that the intent rather than the form is to be considered, will direct that the property should be converted in accordance with the testator's wishes (e).

Time from which conversion takes place.

In wills from testator's death. Deeds from execution and delivery. 2. Time from which conversion takes place.

Subject to the general principle that the terms of each particular instrument must guide in the construction and effect of that instrument (f), the rule is that in regard to wills, conversion takes place as from the death of the testator (g), and as to deeds or other instruments *inter vivos*, that it takes place as from the date of execution.

Time from which conversion takes place in a deed,—Griffith v. Ricketts.

As regards the time from which, in the absence of special circumstances, conversion takes place in the case of a deed, some observations of the court, in Griffith v. Ricketts (h), are important. There a settlor conveyed the equity of redemption of real estate to trustees for sale for the benefit of his creditors, and on trust, if there should be any surplus, to pay the same to him, his executors, administrators, &c., to and for his and their own absolute use and benefit. Held, that this was a conversion of the real estate into personalty, as between the real and personal representatives of the settlor, on the following reasoning:—
"A deed differs from a will in this material respect;" the will speaks from the death, the deed from delivery.

⁽e) Thornton v. Hawley, 10 Ves. 129; Grieveson v. Kirsopp, 2 Kee. 653; Davies v. Goodhew, 6 Sim. 585; Burrell v. Baskerfield, 11 Beav. 525.

⁽f) Ward v. Arch, 15 Sim. 389.
(g) Beauclerk v. Mead, 2 Atk. 167.

⁽h) 7 Hare, 311.

"If then, the author of the deed impresses upon his "real estate the character of personalty, that, as be-"tween his real and personal representatives, makes it "personal and not real estate from the delivery of the "deed, and consequently at the time of his death. The "principle is the same in the case of a deed as in the "case of a will; but the application is different, by "reason that the deed converts the property in the "lifetime of the author of the deed, whereas in the case " of a will, the conversion does not take place until the "death of the testator; and there is no principle on "which the court, as between the real and personal "representatives (between whom there is confessedly "no equity), should not be governed by the simple "effect of the deed in deciding to which of the two "claimants the surplus belongs."

This rule was further illustrated in the case of Clarke Clarke v. v. Franklin (i). There a settlement was executed of Franklin,—to same effect. real estate, by deed (not enrolled), to the use of the settlor for life, with remainder (subject to a power of revocation never exercised) to the use of trustees and their heirs, upon trust to sell and pay certain sums of money to persons named, or to such of them as might be living at the settlor's death, and to apply the residue to charitable purposes. Some of the persons named survived the settlor, so that the purposes for which conversion was directed did not fail altogether, but the deed was void so far as it directed the proceeds of land to be applied to charitable purposes; and the question was, whether, under the circumstances, the surplus belonged to the heir or to the next of kin of the settlor. Vice-Chancellor Wood following Hewitt v. Wright (j) held that notwithstanding the trust for sale was not to arise until after the settlor's death, the property was impressed with the character of person-

⁽i) 4 K. & J. 257.

alty immediately upon the execution of the deed, and that the proceeds, so far as they were directed to be applied to charitable purposes, resulted to the settlor as personalty, and were, of course, upon his death distributable accordingly.

Rule as to deeds inapplicable when conversion is not the object.

As in mortgages.

But although it is true as a general rule that in a deed conversion takes place from the date of its execution, caution is required in applying that rule to instruments, such as mortgage deeds, where the general intention of the author of the trust is neither to convert nor to alter the devolution of the property, but merely to raise money. Thus in Wright v. Rose(k), A. being seised in fee of a freehold estate, borrowed £300 from B. the defendant, and secured the repayment of it with interest, by executing a mortgage deed of the estate, with power of sale, and by the terms of the deed it was provided that the surplus moneys to arise from the sale, in case the same should take place, should be paid to A., his executors or administrators. A. died intestate, and without ever having been married. All the interest due on the mortgage-money had been duly paid by him up to the time of his death, but the principal remained unpaid. The interest that accrued due after his death having remained unpaid, B. the mortgagee entered into possession, and afterwards sold the estate under the power of sale for a sum which greatly exceeded the mortgage money and interest. The question was whether the surplus of the purchasemoneys was real or personal estate. Sir J. Leach held that it was real estate on the following grounds:-"If the estate had been sold by the mortgagee in the lifetime of the mortgagor, then the surplus moneys would have been personal estate of the mortgagor, and the plaintiffs (the next of kin of the mortgagor) would have been entitled. But the estate being unsold

at the death of the mortgagor, the equity of redemption descended to his heir, and he is now entitled to the surplus produce (l).

Closely connected in appearance with the class of Conversion cases just referred to, though differing from them in depending on a future important essentials, are those cases where the conver-option to sion depends on an option to purchase to be exercised purchase. at a future time. Thus in Lawes v. Bennett (m), A. (a) Option made a lease to B. for seven years, and on the lease viously to will, was endorsed an agreement that if B. should within —(1) General devise, a limited time be minded to purchase the inheritance Lawes v. of the premises for £3000, A. would convey them $\frac{B_{ennett.}}{}$ to B. for that sum. B. assigned to C. the lease, and the benefit of this agreement. A. died, and by his will gave all his real estate generally to D. and all his personal estate to D. and E. Within the limited time, but after the death of A., B. claimed the benefit of the agreement from D., who accordingly conveyed the premises to C. for £3000. Held, that the sum of £3000, when paid, was part of the personal estate, and that E. was entitled to one moiety of it as such. "It is very clear," observed the Master of the Rolls, "that if a man seised of real estate contract to sell it, and die before the contract is carried into execution. it is personal property of him. Then the only possible difficulty in this case is, that it is left to the election of B. whether it shall be real or personal. It seems to me to make no distinction at all. . . . When the party who has the power of electing has elected, the whole is to be referred back to the original agreement, and the only difference is, that the real estate is converted into personal, at a future period." Until, Rents until however, in such a case the option to purchase is exercised go as

realty.

⁽l) See Bourne v. Bourne, 2 Hare, 35. (m) I Cox. 167; see Edwards v. West, 7 Ch. Div. 858; Reynard v. Arnolds, L. R. 10 Ch. App. 386.

cised, the rents and profits will go to the persons who were entitled to the property up to that time, as real estate (n).

2. Specific Devise,— Drantv.Vause.

A similar question sometimes arises, where a testator devises lands over which a third party has a right at his option to purchase, whether, when such option is exercised, the purchase-money is to be bound by the same limitations as the real estate for which it has been substituted, or whether it is to follow the destination of the personal property of the testator. the case of Drant v. Vause (o), under a lease for years, the lessees had an option to purchase the fee-simple of the demised lands. After the date of the lease, the lessor made his will, whereby he devised the lands, specifically describing them, to G. for life, with remainders over. After the testator's death, the lessees elected to purchase the fee-simple of the lands. Held, on the special terms of the will, that the purchasemoney did not fall into the residue of the personal estate, but was subject to the same limitations as had been declared concerning the purchased lands, and therefore that G. took a life interest in the purchasemoney (p). It must be observed that in the above case, after the testator had made the agreement, he specifically and in express terms devised the lands, on certain limitations, from which it might be inferred that he intended that, at all events, the land or its value, in case the option should be exercised, should go to certain persons. It will be seen, therefore, on principle that in a similar case of agreement first, and will afterwards, if the will do not specifically refer to the property so agreed to be sold, no such intention will be inferred, and when the option is exercised, the

⁽n) Townley v. Bedwell, 14 Ves. 591; Ex parte Hardy, 30 Beav. 206.(o) 1 Y. & C. C. 580.

⁽p) Emuss v. Smith, 2 De G. & Sm. 722.

purchase-money will fall into the personalty. This point was decided in Collingwood v. Row (q),-and also substantially in the before stated case of Lawes v. Bennett.

In the case of Weeding v. Weeding (r) the testator (b.) Option after making a will devising a specific estate and subsequently bequeathing the residue of his personal estate to other to will. persons, entered into a contract, giving an option of devise. purchase over part of the specific real estate, which (2.) Specific option was exercised after his death. Held, that the Weeding v. property was converted from the date of the exercise Weeding. of the option, and went to the residuary legatees. V.-C. Wood made the following observations:-"The testator must be presumed to know the law. With this knowledge he makes a will devising real estate in one way, and giving his personal estate upon different trusts. After this, he makes a contract, the effect of which he knows will be to give a third person the power of saying, at a future time, whether a certain portion of what was then his real estate shall be realty or personalty. You cannot assume an intention that the property, in any event, is to be divided in the particular proportions as to value, which existed at the date of the will. I understand the principle on which the cases of Drant v. Vause and Emuss v. Smith were decided, to be this: when you find that in a will made after a contract giving an option of purchase, the testator, knowing of the existence of the contract, devises the specific property which is the subject of the contract, without referring in any way to the contract he has entered into, there it is considered that there is a sufficient indication of an intention to pass that property, to give to the devisee all the interest, whatever it may be, that the testator had in it.

"But the case is very different, when, after having given the property by will, the testator makes a sale of it. If it is a sale out and out, there is no question that the devisee's interest is taken away. Here the testator first gives the Kentish Town estate to certain devisees, and his personalty to other persons. that, a part of the estate ceases to be Kentish Town estate, and becomes personalty. There is no republication of the will after the contract by which this change would, in a certain contingency, be brought about. The intention is, that all the Kentish Town property is to go one way, all the personalty another. The testator must be taken to have known when he had entered into the contract that what would ultimately be Kentish Town estate would depend on the option of the lessee; and the inference is, that he meant his property to go according to the state to which it would be reduced by the exercise of that option "(s).

Where the devise of real estate is general and not specific, the rule of *Weeding* v. *Weeding*, to the effect that there is a taking away or ademption of the property from the devisee, when the subsequently created option is subsequently exercised, would undoubtedly apply, and would à fortiori apply, a general devisee being always less favoured than a specific one.

Where purpose subsequently fails, property is reconverted.

There is also another class of cases where conversion may have been directed or agreed upon, yet from the course of *subsequent events* it may be a question whether such constructive conversion has not ceased, so as that the heir and next of kin are restored to their original rights. The principles which govern these

⁽s) Goold v. Teague, 7 W. R. 84; Woods v. Hyde, 10 W. R. 339; and see Frewen v. Frewen, L. R. 10 Ch. App. 610.

cases will be treated of hereafter in the chapter on reconversion.

3. As to the effects of conversion. The effects of conversion. These have been generally stated to be, to make personal estate real, and real estate personal.

- (a.) Money directed to be turned into land descends to the heir (t), and land directed to be converted into money goes to the personal representatives (u).
- (b.) Money belonging to a married woman directed to be converted into land is liable to the husband's curtesy, though under the same circumstances it was held, in deference rather to the custom of conveyancers than to principle, that the widow was not entitled to her dower out of the money of her husband directed to be laid out in land (v). This anomaly has been swept away by the Dower Act (w).
- (c.) Again, before the Wills Act(x), an infant, under the age of 21, might make a will of personal estate; but he could not, during minority, dispose of personalty to be laid out in land (y).

4. The results of a total or partial failure of the 4. Results of purposes for which conversion is directed.

As to total failure. The universal rule may be thus (A.) Total stated—that where a conversion is directed or agreed failure—in deeds and in upon, whether by will or by settlement, or other instru- wills indiffement inter vivos, whether of money into land, or of land

rently.

⁽t) Scudamore v. Scudamore, Prec. in Ch. 543. (u) Ashby v. Palmer, I Mer. 296; Elliott v. Fisher, 12 S.m. 505.

⁽v) Sweetapple v. Bindon, 2 Vern. 536. (w) 3 & 4 Will. IV. c. 105, s. 2. (x) 1 Vict., c. 26. (y) Earlon

⁽y) Earlow v. Saunders, Amb. 241.

The property results unconverted.

into money, if the objects and purposes for which that conversion was intended have totally failed before the instrument directing the conversion comes into operation, no conversion will take place, but the property so directed or agreed to be converted will remain in its original state, or rather, will result to the testator or settlor with its original form unchanged. words of Wood, V.-C., in the case of Clarke v. Franklin (z), "So here, if at the moment when the grantor put his hand to this deed, the purpose for which conversion was directed had failed, for instance, if he had given all the proceeds instead of a part to charitable purposes, so that the property would have been at home in his lifetime, the court would have regarded it as if no conversion had been directed, and the property would have resulted to the grantor as real estate (a).

(B.) Partial failure.

Where the purposes for which conversion is directed have partially failed before the instrument directing the conversion has come into operation, the rules are somewhat complex, and it will be necessary to deal seriatim with the cases, regard being had to the nature of the instrument by which such conversion is directed.

I. Under wills.

- I. Cases under wills:---
- (a.) Of land into money.
- (b.) Of money into land.

II. Under instruments inter vivos.

II. Cases under settlements or other instruments inter vivos:—

- (a.) Of land into money.
- (b.) Of money into land.

⁽z) 4 K. & J. 257.

⁽a) Ripley v. Waterwork, 7 Ves. 435; Smith v. Claxton, 4 Mad. 492.

With reference to each of these four cases, three Three quesquestions will arise-

1stly. To what extent is the trust for conversion still in force?

2dly. Who is to benefit by the lapse or failure,the heir or the personal representative of the testator or settlor?

3dly. In what character will the benefit accruing to the testator's or settlor's real or personal representative be taken by such real or personal representative?

- I. Cases under wills.
- (a.) Of land into money.

I. Under wills. Land into money.

In Ackroyd v. Smithson (b), a testator gave several Ackroyd v. legacies, and ordered his real and personal estate to be smithson, sold, his debts and legacies to be paid out of the protes the undisposed of surplus, or ceeds arising out of the sale, and the residue thereof surplus lands. he gave to certain legatees of a previous part of his will in the proportion of the legacies he had already given them. Two of the residuary legatees died during the testator's lifetime; their shares consequently lapsed. The next of kin claimed the lapsed shares as part of the personalty; and so far as they were constituted of personal estate, they were decreed to go to the next of kin of the testator; but so far as they were constituted of real estate, to his heir-at-law. would, perhaps, be impossible to find a clearer exposition of the principles governing this class of cases than in the celebrated argument of Mr. Scott, afterwards Lord Eldon. "That the heir-at-law is entitled to every interest in land not disposed of by his ancestor, is so much of a truism that it calls for no reasoning to support it. It is not enough that the testator did not intend that his heir should take; he must make a

There must be disposition in favour of another (c). If he has not a gift over to exclude the heir.

actually disposed of all his real estate, the law will give such part of his real estate as he has not actually and eventually disposed of, even against his intention, and à fortiori in a case where he has expressed no intention, to the hæres natus. . . . As to the question of fact, whether he meant that in some event only, or that in all events, the produce of his real estate should be considered as personalty, we admit that in favour of his residuary legatees he meant to convert the whole into personalty, in case all his residuary legatees should eventually take the whole; but we contend, that he has intimated no intention as to that part of the produce, as to which his disposition, in the event which has happened, has failed of effect. He converts it out and out, indeed, if you speak of his intention as to the qualities of the property which his residuary legatees were to take; but as to such part of the property, as in the event, they have not taken, he has not determined Undisposed-of upon its nature: he never meant to determine upon its nature, as between his heir-at-law and his personal representative or next of kin, because he appears not to have adverted to the possibility of any events taking place which would give the one or the other an interest in his property, and he designed no part of his property for either. In the event, the one or the other must take some part of it; but to say he has made it

proceeds result to the heir.

(c) Fitch v. Weber, p. 164, post.

all personal property, and that, therefore, the law must give it to the next of kin, is to apply an argument deduced from what was the testator's intention in case events had taken place which have not occurred for the sake of proving a similar intention, where the circumstances happened directly contrary to those with relation to which only the testator framed his intention. To argue from what the testator intended with

respect to residuary legatees, in order to prove that he intended the same in favour of his next of kin, is to reason from a case in which intention is expressed to prove a like intention in a case which supposes the absence of intention."

It has recently been decided in Steed v. Preece (d), Doctrine does that the doctrine of Ackroyd v. Smithson does not ex-sale by the tend to the case of a sale under an order of the court court. in favour of an heir-at-law who had consented to such sale. Lands had been sold to raise an infant's costs in a suit for partition, and it was held that the personal representative was entitled to the surplus as against the remainder-man. Jessel M. R. there said, that "in Ackroyd v. Smithson no such general principle as the following was decided-namely, that if a trustee or the court sell so much land, as it is judged will be required to raise a charge, and there is a surplus, there is an equity to reconvert that surplus in favour of the real representative. The true principle is this, that the moment a sale is properly made, conversion follows, and there is no equity to reconvert the surplus."

From the case of Ackroyd v. Smithson, the questions, Smith v. as to what extent the conversion is still in force, and land to be sold who benefits by the lapse, will find a complete answer; results to the but the further question still remains, whether the land sonal estate, directed to be sold results to the heir as real or as actual conpersonal property, a question that sometimes arises dition. between the real and personal representatives of such heir. The doctrine on this subject is clearly laid down in the case of Smith v. Claxton (e), a case illustrative of the principles governing equity with reference to cases both of total and of partial failure. "A devisor may give to his devisee either land or the price

⁽d) 22 W. R. 432; Foster v. Foster, 1 Ch. Div. 588; Mildmay v. Quicke, 6 Ch. Div. 553; but see Cooke v. Dealey, 22 Beav. 196. (e) 4 Mad. 492.

of land, at his pleasure, and the devisee must receive it in the quality in which it is given, and cannot inter-

cept the purpose of the devisor. If it be the purpose of the devisor to give lands to the devisee, the land will descend to his heir; if it be the purpose of the devisor to give the price of land to the devisee, it will, like other money, be part of the devisee's personal estate. Under every will when the question is whether the devisee, or the heir, failing the devisee, takes an interest in the land, as land or as money, the true inquiry is, whether the devisor has expressed a purpose that in the events (a.) Where sale which have happened the land shall be converted into money. Where a devisor directs his land to be sold. and the produce to be divided between A. and B., the obvious purpose of the testator is that there shall be a sale for the convenience of division, and A. and B. take their several interests as money and not as land. if A. dies in the lifetime of the devisor, and the heir stands in his place, the purpose of the devisor that there shall be a sale for the convenience of division, still applies; and the heir will take the share of A., as A. would have taken it, as money and not as land. But suppose A. and B. both to die in the lifetime of the devisor, and the whole interest in the land descends to the heir, the question would then be, whether the devisor can be considered as having expressed any purpose of sale applicable to that event, so as to give the quality of money to the interest of the heir. obvious purpose of the devisor being that there should be a sale for the convenience of division between his devisees, that purpose could have no application to a case in which the devisees wholly failed, and the heir would therefore take the whole interest as land." the course of this argument, and from the current of authorities, the rule would seem to be briefly this, that

> where it is necessary to sell the land for the purposes of the trust, and there is only a partial disposition of the produce of the sale, here the surplus belongs to

is necessary,it results as money to the heir.

(b.) Where sale is unnecessary, and is not made, or so far as not made,-it results as land to the heir.

the heir as money and not as land, and will therefore go to his personal representative, even though the land may not have been sold during his lifetime, provided that it be afterwards actually sold, and the surplus ascertained (f).

(b.) Money directed to be laid out in land.

Money into

The principle on which Ackroyd v. Smithson was decided applies also to the converse case of money directed to be laid out in the purchase of real estate. devised to uses which partially fail; for the undisposed- Cogan v. of interest in the money will result for the benefit of the Undisposed-of next of kin of the testator as personalty, and will not go money results to personal reto the heir-at-law (q). Lord Cottenham, while Master presentatives. of the Rolls, in the case of Cogan v. Stephens (h), after examining all the authorities upon this subject, put an end to the anomaly which would otherwise have existed in the law of conversion, by deciding in favour of the claims of the next of kin. In Cogan v. Stephens, the testator ordered that £30,000 should be laid out immediately by his executors in the purchase of an estate or estates in the county of Devon or Cornwall, the income of which should belong to his widow during her life, and after her decease to certain persons (all of whom died during the life of his widow, without issue) in tail, with remainder to a charity. The money was not laid out, and the gift to the charity being void under the statute of mortmain, it was held that the next of kin and not the heir-at-law of the testator were entitled to the fund. "If a testator," said his Lordship, "devises land for purposes altogether illegal, or which altogether fail, the heir-at-law takes it as undisposed of. If a testator gives personal property for purposes altogether illegal, or which altogether fail, the

⁽f) Wright v. Wright, 16 Ves. 188; Jessopp v. Watson, 1 My. & K. 665; Wall v. Colshead, 2 De G. & Jo. 683.

⁽g) Reynolds v. Godlee, Johnson, 536, 582.

⁽h) I Beav. 482, n.

next of kin takes it as in the case of an intestacy, as undisposed of. If a testator devises land for purposes which are in part illegal, or which partially fail, or which require part only of the lands devised, the heir takes so much of the land as is undisposed of, and which was destined for the purpose which by law cannot, or in fact does not, take effect, and so much as is not required for the purposes of the will, and this is whether the land be actually sold or not. But here. it is said, the analogy between the cases of land and money ceases, and that if a testator directs money to be laid out in the purchase of land for purposes which are partly illegal or which partially fail, the next of kin has no such interest in the money as cannot be applied to the purposes of the will; but if there are purposes legal and feasible which require the investment, the next of kin are excluded. And why are they to be so excluded? . . . In deciding in favour of the next of kin, I am following the principle of Ackroyd v. Smithson, and maintaining that uniformity of decision as to the conversion of land into money. and of money into land, which was supposed to exist before that time."

Reynolds v. Godlee: Undisposed-of personalty results to personal representatives of testator as personalty.

So far the analogy between cases of conversion of land into money and of money into land is complete. Here, however, the analogy ceases, or rather apparently ceases, but in reality continues. As to the question—in what character the undisposed-of personalty to be converted into land comes into the hands of the personal representative of the testator, whether, in apparent analogy to the decision in Smith v. Claxton, he will take it as realty, or whether he will take it it its original character of personalty, the case of Reynolds v. Godlee (i) has decided that the latter is the true view—that personalty directed by will to be laid out in

land to be held in trusts, which do not exhaust the absolute interest, devolves, after the expiration of the specified trusts, upon the executors of the testator, as personalty for the next of kin, that being of course its actual condition at the time of its devolution (i). And this is in fact what the converse case of Smith v. Claxton decided, although it is commonly misunderstood on this precise point. "It is urged," said Wood, V.-C., "that the analogy of Smith v. Claxton must be applied completely, as to make this real estate in the hands of the next of kin. But there is a great difference between realty and personalty in this respect. It is not the next of kin at all, but the executors on whom personal property devolves, until the purposes of the will are satisfied. . . . The executor is in general the only person who can stand here to claim the personal estate, and whatever he gets in quâ executor, he must hold as personalty."

It was decided in Jessopp v. Watson (k), that the Blending of blending of the proceeds of the real with the personal real and personal sonal estate,estate, for an express purpose which fails, will not the principle operate to convert the real into personal estate for a Smithson is purpose not expressed; viz., to give it to the next of kin. excluded. This rule received a strong application in Fitch v. Weber (i). There the testatrix devised and bequeathed her real and personal estate in trust, as to the real estate for sale, as soon after her decease as could be, and declared that the trustees should stand possessed of the proceeds of the sale, as a fund of personal and not of real estate, for which purpose such proceeds, or any part thereof, should not in any case lapse or result for the benefit of the heir-at-law; and after giving legacies, the testatrix directed her trustees to pay and apply the residue of her estate and effects, as she should by any

(k) 1 My. & K. 667.

⁽i) Curteis v. Wormald, 10 Ch. Div. 172.

⁽l) 6 Har3, 146.

codicil to her will direct or appoint. The testatrix made no codicil. It was held that the heir-at-law was entitled to the proceeds of the real estate undisposed of—that the mere intention to exclude the heir was of no avail, unless there was a gift over on failure of the purposes, to some one else—that the purpose for which the testatrix said she excluded the heir, was simply that the realty might be made a fund of personalty, which purpose would not per se be sufficient to disinherit the heir except for the purposes of the will.

Conversion for purposes of will, or out and out.

The several cases on the subject seem to depend on this question,—" Whether the testator meant to give the produce of the real estate the quality of personalty to all intents, or only so far as respected the particular purposes of the will; for unless the testator has sufficiently declared his intention that the realty shall be converted into personalty not only for the purposes of the will, but further, that the produce of the real estate shall be taken as personalty, whether such purposes take effect or not, so much of the real estate or produce thereof as is not effectually disposed of by the will at the time of the testator's death (whether from the silence or inefficiency of the will itself, or from subsequent lapse or other cause of failure) will result to the heir. But every conversion, however absolute in its terms, will be deemed a conversion for the purposes of the will only, unless the testator distinctly indicates an intention that it is, on the failure of those purposes, to prevail as between the persons respectively on whom the law casts the real and personal property of an intestate, namely, the heir and next of kin" (m).

⁽m) Mr. Cox's note to Cruse v. Barley, 3 P. Wms. 22; 1 Jarman on Wills, 530, 2d ed.; Amphlett v. Parke, 2 Russ. & My. 221; Taylor v. Taylor, 3 De G. M. & G. 190; Robinson v. Governors of London Hospital, 10 Hare, 19; Barrs v. Fewkes, 13 W. R. 987.

II. Cases under settlements or other instruments II. Cases inter nings. ments

- (a.) Of land into money.
- (b.) Of money into land.

In both these cases, one general rule is applicable. Property re-When, by an instrument, inter vivos, realty is directed in converted to be converted into personalty (n), or personalty into form. realty (o), for certain specified purposes or objects, and a part of those purposes or objects fail, the property to that extent results to the settlor, and through him, if it is land, directed to be converted into money, it goes to his personal representatives (p), and if it is money directed to be converted into land, it goes to his heir (q); and its subsequent further devolution (if any) will, semble, depend upon its actual character at the time that further devolution arises.

It will be seen, therefore, that there is a material Distinction distinction as to the application of the doctrine of re-between partial failure sulting trusts between those cases where conversion under a will partially fails, when it is directed by will, and when it settlement. by will, if there has been any partial failure of the purposes for which the conversion has been directed, to that extent it will result to the testator's representatives, real or personal, who would have been entitled to take it had no conversion been directed, whereas in the case of conversion directed by deed or other instrument inter vivos, the rule is just the reverse (r).

The reason of this distinction, as has already been

⁽n) Clarke v. Franklin, 4 K. & J. 263.

⁽o) See Pulteney v. Darlington, I Bro. Ch. Ca. 223; Lechmere v.

Lechmere, Ca. temp. Talb. 80.
(p) Griffith v. Ricketts, 7 Hare, 299.
(q) Wheldale v. Partridge, 8 Ves. 236. (r) Brown's Dictionary—title Conversion.

pointed out, is, that whereas a will comes into operation from the death of the testator, a deed takes effect in the settlor's lifetime, from the moment of its delivery. A simple illustration will suffice to set the rules on this subject in the clearest light. Suppose a conveyance of real estate by deed upon trust to pay the rents and profits to the settlor during his life, and after his death to sell the same and divide the proceeds between A. and B. equally, if then living. Afterwards A. dies before the time when his share becomes due, i.e., before the settlor's death. As to his moiety there is a failure. Who takes it? Clearly the settlor, who is still alive, and to whom it must therefore result; but in what form? Here steps in the principle, that a deed for the purpose of conversion operates from the moment of its delivery, even though the settlor has directed the sale to take place after his The deed, therefore, has converted the realty in the lifetime of the author of the deed. be the time at which that conversion is directed to take place, whether in the grantor's lifetime or after his death, the grantor by executing a deed of this description says, in effect, 'From the time I put my hand to this deed, I limit so much of this property to myself as personal property'" (s). The property results into the hands of the settlor, not as realty, but in that form into which he has directed it to be converted, i.e., as personalty (t).

⁽s) Clarke v. Franklin, 4 K & J. 263.

⁽t) Ibid.

CHAPTER X.

RECONVERSION.

RECONVERSION may be defined as that notional or Reconversion. imaginary process by which a prior notional conversion is annulled and taken away, and the notionally converted is property restored in contemplation of a court of equity to its original actual unconverted quality. Thus real estate is devised on trust to sell and pay the proceeds to A.; by virtue of the direction, A. becomes absolutely entitled from the moment of the testator's death to the property as personalty, whether an actual sale has taken place or not. But A. has a right to elect in what form he will take the property. He has a right to tell the trustees, "I prefer the land instead of the purchase-money of the land." And according to his election the property will vest in him, as land or as money.

The cases on this subject range themselves under Two varieties two heads. Reconversion may take place in either of of reconvertwo ways—viz., either

- I. By the act of the parties; or,
- II. By operation of law.
 - I. Reconversion by the act of the parties.
- I. By the act of the parties.
- (A.) Who may and who may not elect, so as to reconvert,—and to what extent?
- I. It is clear that an absolute owner in fee simple 1. By absolute in possession of property directed to be converted may owner. elect to take that property in whatever form he chooses,

—there being, in fact, no other person who has any voice in the matter. And the reason is this, that since "equity, like nature, will do nothing in vain," if the person in whose favour the conversion is directed elects to have the property in its unconverted state, it will be vain for equity to compel the doing of that which may be undone the next moment. But as the presumption is, that what ought to be done will be done-that conversion will take place-the onus of proof will be on those who allege that the owner has reconverted the property (a).

2. By owner of an undivided share.

(a.) Of money

- 2. So far the law is clear when the person entitled either to the money to be laid out in land, or to the land to be sold for money, is the absolute and only feesimple owner in possession. But what is the principle when the person entitled is entitled not to the whole subject-matter, but to an undivided share?
- (a.) Of money into land. In Seeley v. Jago (b), A. to be turned to be turned into land,—the devised £ 1000 to be laid out in the purchase of lands undivided in fee for the benefit of A., B., and C., equally to be owner may redivided. A. dies leaving an infant heir, and B. and convert. C., together with the infant heir, bring a bill for the £1000. The Lord Chancellor said, "The money being directed to be laid out in land for A., B., and C., equally, which makes them tenants in common, and B. and C., electing to have their two-thirds in money, let it be paid to them, for it is vain to lay out this
- (b.) Land to be turned into money. In Holloway (b.) Of land to be converted be converted into money,— v. Radcliffe (c), A. B. was entitled to two-thirds of an

will do nothing in vain."

money in land for B. and C., when the next moment they may turn it into money, and equity, like nature,

⁽a) Sisson v. Giles, II W. R. 971; Benson v. Benson, I P. Wms. 130. (b) I P. Wms. 389. (c) 23 Beav. 163.

estate directed to be converted into personalty. Held, the undivided that it had not been reconverted into realty by acts of owner may not reconvert. A. B., done independently of the person entitled to the remaining one-third. Here the principle is clear. The sale of an undivided share would presumably be less marketable, and produce a far less sum than would be receivable in respect of that share of the proceeds of sale of the entirety; and therefore neither of the two undivided owners has a right to compel the other to forego a sale of the whole property.

- 3. A remainder-man cannot elect so as to affect the 3. By remaininterests of the owners of prior estates. Take, for in-extent of his stance, the simple case of a settlement of money to be only. laid out in land upon trust for a tenant for life, with remainder in fee to some third person. There is no principle either at law or in equity, by which the remainder-man in fee can, as against the tenant for life, elect to take the property as money. The tenant for life can insist on his rights under the settlement, and can compel the trustees of the settlement to lay out the money as directed by the settlement. But although, as against the tenant for life, the remainderman has no right to say that the money to be laid out in land shall again become money-shall be reconverted-of course, there is nothing to prevent the remainder-man declaring, as between his real and personal representatives, who claim as volunteers under him, that a particular reversionary interest to which he is entitled, shall be money or shall be land (d).
- 4. An infant cannot ordinarily reconvert (e); be- 4. By infants. cause, usually, the matter can wait till he comes of And if the matter won't wait, then the court

⁽d) 2 Sp. 271; Triquet v. Thornton, 13 Ves. 345; Gillies v. Longlands, 4 De G. & Sm. 372, 379; Cookson v. Cookson, 12 Cl. & F. 121.

(e) Seeley v. Jago, 1 P. W. 389; Carr v. Ellison, 2 Bro. C. C. 56; Dyer v. Dyer, 13 W. R. 732; Robinson v. Robinson, 19 Beav. 494.

may direct an inquiry whether it is for the benefit of the infant to reconvert or not, and will order and decree according to the result of the inquiry,—but apparently without prejudice to the diverse rights of the real and personal representatives of the infant dying under age (f).

- 5. By lunatics.
- 5. A lunatic cannot reconvert (g), but his committee, with the sanction of the court, may do so for him, in which case the like inquiry will be directed as in the case of infants; only the court, *semble*, will not in the case of lunatics have any regard to, or make any saving of, the diverse rights of the real and personal representatives of the lunatic (h).
- 6. By married women.
- 6. The rules as to the capability of married women to reconvert demand a more particular consideration.
- (a.) Money into land.
- (a.) As to money to be converted into land.

(aa.) Anciently, the married woman was examined in court, and so reconverted.

A feme covert cannot elect by a contract or ordinary deed (i). But although, as observed by Lord Hardwicke in Oldham v. Hughes (j), "a feme covert cannot alter the nature of money to be laid out in land, barely by a contract or deed, for to alter the property of it, or course of descent, yet the money may be invested in land (and sometimes sham purchases have been made for that purpose), and she may then levy a fine of the land and give it to her husband, or anybody else. There is a way, also, of doing this without laying the money out in land, and that is by coming into this court, whereby the wife may consent to take this money as personal estate; and upon her being present in court, and being examined (as a feme covert on a

⁽f) See the chapter on Infants, infra; also Foster v. Foster, L. R. I Ch. Div. 588. (g) Ashby v. Palmer, I Mer. 296.

⁽h) See the chapter on Lunatics, infra.
(i) Frank v. Frank, 3 My. & Cr. 171.

⁽j) 2 Atk. 453.

fine is) as to such consent, it binds this money articled to be laid out in land as much as a fine at law would the land, and she may then dispose of it to her husband, or anybody else; and the reason of it is, that at law money so articled to be laid out in land is considered barely as money till an actual investiture and the equity of this court alone views it in the light of a real estate; and, therefore, this court can act upon its own creature, and do what a fine at common law can upon land, and if the wife has craved aid of this court, in the manner I have mentioned, she might have changed the nature of this money which is realised; but she cannot do it by deed."

The necessity of making these sham purchases (bb.) At precaused much inconvenience, which was attempted to ried woman be remedied by several statutes. Finally, by 3 & 4 executes a deed acknow-Will. IV., c. 74, s. 77, a married woman was permitted ledged, and so by deed executed in compliance with its provisions to 3 & 4 Will. IV. make her election to take or dispose of money to be c. 74, s. 77. laid out in land (k).

(b.) Land to be converted into money.

(b.) Land into money.

Here the husband and wife might, before the stat. (aa.) Ancient-3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 74, so long as the land remained woman reunsold, by levying a fine, bar all the wife's estates and converted by levying a fine. interest in the money to arise from the sale of the land (1). Such was the state of the old law; and under the Act for the abolition of fines and recoveries, the result is the same. That Act in substance, says (m), (bb.) At prethat a married woman may, with her husband's con-sent, the married currence, by deed acknowledged under the Act, dispose woman reconverts by of lands, or of money subject to be invested in lands, executing a and also, of "any interest in land, either at law or deed acknow-

⁽k) Forbes v. Adams, 9 Sim. 462.

⁽¹⁾ Co. Litt. 121 a. n.; May v. Roper, 4 Sim. 360.

⁽m) Sec. 77.

equity, or any charge, lien, or encumbrance in, or upon, or affecting land, either at law or in equity." Briggs v. Chamberlain (n), it was decided that where the personal estate consists of moneys to arise from the sale of lands, she might bind her interest by a deed acknowledged, the subject-matter of disposition being then an interest in land, and falling, therefore, within the words of the statute; and in Tuer v. Turner(o), it was similarly decided regarding a married woman's reversionary interest, or remainder, in like moneys.

How election is shown.

(B.) Mode in which election to take the property in its actual state may be made.

(a) By express direction.

Of course it is clear that an express declaration of intention on the part of the absolute owner of property not being under any disability, that it shall be deemed real or personal estate, is per se sufficient to bind those claiming under him, without any reference to the actual state or condition of the property at the time, though it has been doubted whether a declaration by parol would be sufficient (p).

(b.) By implied

But much greater difficulty arises where the owner direction, from does not express his intention so to reconvert; the question will then occur, what acts of the owner are sufficient to lead to an inference that he desired and intended to possess the property according to its actual state and condition.

(aa.) As to land into money,-

(a.) As to real estate directed to be converted into money, slight circumstances are sufficient to raise a presumption that the owner has elected to retain it as

⁽n) II Hare, 69. (o) Tuer v. Turner, 20 Beav. 560. (p) Bradish v. Gee, Amb. 229; but see Chaloner v. Butcher, cited 3 Atk. 685; Pulteney v. Darlington, I Bro. C. C. 237; Wheldale v. Partridge, 8 Ves. 236; I L. C. 932.

realty. Thus if a person keeps land unsold for a long slight circumtime, a presumption will arise that he has elected to stances suffice to reconvert. take it as land (q). So the circumstances of granting a lease, reserving rent to the party entitled, her heirs, and assigns, was strong evidence of an intention in the lessor to elect that it should continue as land (r). In Davies v. Ashford (s), by marriage settlement real estates were conveyed to trustees, on trust to sell, and hold the proceeds on trusts for the husband and wife, for their lives successively, remainder on trust for their children, remainder on trust for the survivor of husband and wife absolutely. There was no issue. husband survived his wife, and after her death consulted his solicitor as to his rights under the settlement, and then got possession of the settlement and title-deeds, &c., and remained in possession of them until his death, and also of the estates. Held, that he had elected to take the estates as land. The V.-C. of England said, "It does not distinctly appear in whose custody the title-deeds originally were, but it is clear that there was a change in the possession of them, and that Mr. Davies got them into his custody. Now, was not that of necessity a destruction of the trust? For the trustees could not have compelled Mr. Davies to deliver up the deeds; and without doing so they could not have made an effectual sale of the estate"

(b.) As regards personal estate to be laid out in (bb.) As to land, of course, if the person absolutely entitled re-money into land,—slight ceives the money from the trustees, he is held to circumstances have elected to take it as money, and the trust to reconvert. is at an end (t). But it will not be so deemed

⁽q) Dixon v. Gayfere, 17 Beav. 433; Griesbach v. Fremantle, 17 Beav. 314; Kirkman v. Miles, 13 Ves. 338; Mutlow v. Bigg, L. R. 1 Ch. Div. 385; In re Gordon, Roberts v. Gordon, L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 531. (r) Crabtree v. Bramble, 3 Atk. 680. (s) 15 Sim. 42. (t) Trafford v. Boehm, 3 Atk. 440; Rook v. Worth, 1 Ves. Sr. 461;

where he has received merely the *income*, though for a long time (u).

II. By operation of law.

II. Reconversion by operation of law.

Concurrence of two requisites toreconversion necessary,-1st, property in person entitled whether it be real or personal, and 2d, no déclaration by him concerning it.

If an instrument is to be taken to impress a fund with real qualities, the money being once clearly impressed with real uses, as land, in a contest between the heir and executor, the impression will remain for the benefit of the heir; and to put an end to that impression two things are necessary, neither of which standing alone will suffice, to reconvert the property, that is to say, firstly, it must be shown that the money was in the hands, i.e., in the actual possession, of a person who had in himself both the executors and the heirs (v); and, secondly, that person must have died without making any declaration of his intention regarding it. If both these two things combine, then the property shall go according to the quality in which it was left by him at his death. And these two things being proved, the onus of proof to the contrary lies, of course, on those who deny reconversion, whereas in the case of reconversion by the act of the parties, it was pointed out that the onus lies on those who allege reconversion.

Chichester v. Bickerstaff hree days only, made no sign" about it.

In Chichester v. Bickerstaff (w), on the marriage of Bickerstaff—the money was Sir John Chichester with the daughter of Sir Charles "at home" for Bickerstaff, Sir Charles by articles covenanted to pay and Sir John, £ 1500 in part of the portion, which, together with £1500 to be advanced by Sir John within three years after the marriage, was to be invested in land and settled on Sir John for life, remainder to his

Cookson v. Cookson, 12 Cl. & F. 147; In re Davidson, Martin v. Trimmer, 11 Ch. Div. 341.

⁽u) Gillies v. Longlands, 4 De G. & Sm. 372; Re Pedder's Settlement, 5 De G. M. & G. 890.

⁽v) Wheldale v. Partridge, 8 Ves. 235.

⁽w) 2 Vern. 295.

intended wife for life, remainder to their issue, remainder to Sir John's right heirs. Within a year of the marriage the wife died childless, and Sir John three days after his wife. Sir John by his will made Sir Charles his executor, and devised the residue of his personalty, after debts, &c., paid to Frances Chichester. his sister. The heir-at-law of Sir John filed a bill against Sir Charles to compel him to pay the £1500 which Sir John had covenanted to pay, insisting that by virtue of the marriage articles the money ought to be looked on and considered in equity as land, and therefore belonged to him as heir. But Lord Somers said, "This money, though once bound by the articles, yet, when the wife died without issue, became free again, as the land would likewise have been in case a purchase had been made pursuant to the articles, and therefore would have been assets to a creditor, and must have gone to the executor or administrator of Sir John; and the case is much stronger where there is a residuary legatee," and therefore dismissed the hill

In the case of Pulteney v. Darlington (x), money Pulteney v. impressed with the qualities of realty had come by Dartington,—the money was operation of law into the hands of the person (Lord doubly reconverted, having Bath) solely entitled to it under the limitation in fee; been twice and the person so entitled, without taking notice of the home." particular sum, devised all his manors, &c., which he was seised or possessed of, or to which he was in any wise entitled in possession, reversion, or remainder, or which should thereafter be purchased with any trustmoneys (except certain locally described estates therein mentioned) to his brother H. in fee, and gave him all the residue of his personal estate, and made him his executor. His brother H. subsequently, by his will, gave all his estates by local descriptions to certain uses

⁽x) I Bro. C. C. 223.

therein mentioned, and all his money, securities for

Money impressed with real uses at home in the hands of the absolute owner descends as money.

But not if it be outstanding in hands of a third party.

money, goods, chattels, and personal estate, not before disposed of, to his executors, for certain trusts mentioned in his will. Subsequently to H.'s death, a bill was brought by the heir-at-law of Lord Bath to have the money laid out in land, but was dismissed. "If," said Lord Thurlow, "A. B. has in his possession £20,000 to be laid out in land for his use, he has nobody to sue; the right and the thing centering in one person, the action is extinguished;" and after citing and commenting upon the cases on the subject, his Lordship added, "The use I make of these cases, notwithstanding the dicta they contain, is this, that where a sum of money is in the hands of one without any other use but for himself, it will be money, and the heir cannot claim. . . But whether this is clearly so or not, circumstances of demeanour in the person (even though slight) will be sufficient to decide it; a very little would do; receiving it from the trustees, there is no doubt, would be sufficient. Lord Bath did receive it, he had it in his hands." This decision was affirmed in the House of Lords (y); and as Lord Eldon says, "went no further than this, that if the property was at home, in the possession of the person under whom the heir and executor claimed, the heir could not take it, but if it stood out in a third person he possibly might; and the question in that case was not upon the equity between the heir and executor, but whether the money was at home (z).

⁽y) 7 Bro. P. C. Toml. Ed. 530. (z) Wheldale v. Partridge, 8 Ves. 235. And see Walrond v. Rosslyn, Walrond v. Fulford, 11 Ch. Div. 640.

CHAPTER XI.

ELECTION.

THE doctrine of election in equity originates in two Election arises inconsistent alternative donations or benefits, the one from inconsistent alternative donations or benefits, and the other donations do alternative donation alternative donation alternative donation alternative donation do alternative donation do alternative donation do alternative donation do alternative do al of which the pretending donor has no power to make tive gifts. without at least the assent of the donee of the other In this duality of gifts, or pretended gifts, there is an intention, which may be express but which is more often implied, that the one gift shall be a substitute for the other, and shall take effect only if the donee thereof permits the other gift to also take effect, substantially in the manner and to the extent intended by the donor. The permitting donee has the right to choose; whence this head of equity is commonly called election.

If the individual, to whom, by an instrument of Illustrations of donation, a benefit is offered, possesses a previous claim inconsistent alternative on the author of the instrument, and an intention sifts or quasiappears that he shall not receive the benefit and also enforce his claim, the like principle of executing the purpose of the donor, requires the donee to elect between his original right and the substituted benefit; the gift being designed as a satisfaction of the claim, he cannot accept the former without renouncing the latter (a). But the commonest application of the doctrine is where the owner of an estate, having, in an instrument of donation, applied to the property of another, expressions which, were that property his own, would amount

⁽a) See post on the Doctrine of Satisfaction.

to an effectual disposition of it to a third person, has also by the same instrument disposed of a portion of his (the donor's) own estate in favour of the proprietor whose rights he assumes to interfere with. In such a case the donor is understood to impose on the proprietor in question,—either the obligation of relinquishing the benefit conferred on him by the instrument, if he asserts his own inconsistent proprietary rights (to the extent at least of the fair market value of the proprietary interests which he so asserts); or, if he accepts that benefit, then the obligation of completing the donor's intended disposition by the conveyance, in conformity to it, of that portion of his property which it purports to affect.

The foundation and the characteristic effect of the equitable doctrine.

The foundation of the doctrine is the intention of the author of the instrument; an intention which, extending to the whole disposition, is frustrated by the failure of any part; and its characteristic, in its application to these cases, is, that, by an equitable arrangement, effect is given to a donation of that which is not the property of the donor; a valid gift in terms absolute, being qualified by reference to a distinct clause, which, though inoperative as a conveyance, affords authentic evidence of intention. The intention being assumed, the conscience of the donee is affected by the condition: whether express or implied, and although destitute of legal validity, annexed to the benefit proposed to him. To accept the benefit while he declines the burden is to frustrate the intention of the donor(b). To illustrate this application of the doctrine of election, suppose A. by will or deed gives to B. property belonging to C., and by the same instrument gives other property belonging to himself to C., a court of equity will hold C. to be entitled to the gift made to him by A., only upon the implied condition of his conforming with all the pro-

⁽b) Note to Dillon v. Parker, I Sw. 395.

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visions of the instrument, by renouncing the right to his own property in favour of B.; he must consequently make his choice, or, as it is technically termed, he is put to his election, to take either under or against the instrument.

The doctrine of election, in common with many Election,—other doctrines of our courts of equity, appears to be the civil law. derived from the civil law, or at all events to be not without its analogy in that law. For, in Roman law, a bequest of property which the testator knew to belong to another was not void; but a bequest on the erroneous supposition that the subject belonged to the testator, was, it seems, invalid (c). In the latter respect, the Roman law is different from the English law, for by the English law (which dislikes those fruitless and impossible inquiries with which the civil law abounded), whether the donor knew or not that the property he assumed to deal with was his own or not, if he has advisedly assumed to give it, then and in either case it is held that the donee is put to his election (d).

In the case already put, of A. giving to B. property Two courses belonging to C., and by the same instrument giving to between,—
C. other property belonging to A. himself, C. has two

Either, 1stly, He may elect to take under the in-(1.) Election strument, and consequently to conform to all its pro-under instruvisions. Here no difficulty arises, as B. will take C.'s property, and C. will take the property given to him by A.

Or, 2dly, He may elect against the instrument, in (2.) Election which case the question arises,—Does C., by refusing against the instrument.

courses open to him to choose or to elect between,-

⁽c) See Just.'s Insts. ii. 24, 1.

⁽d) Whistler v. Webster, 2 Ves. Jr. 370.

to conform to the terms of the instrument, wholly forfeit his claim to the benefit intended to be conferred on him by that instrument, or does he forfeit only so much of that benefit under the instrument, as is necessary to compensate B. for the disappointment he has suffered by C.'s election against the instrument?

Illustration,—showing that compensation and not forfeiture is the rule,—upon an election against the instrument.

To illustrate, by a simple case. Suppose A., the testator, gives to B. a family estate belonging to C., worth £20,000 in the market, and by the same will gives to C. a legacy of £30,000 of his (A.'s) own property. C. is unwilling to part with his family estate, and therefore elects against the instrument. It has been held, that, in such a case, viz., the election against the instrument, the principle of compensation, and not that of forfeiture, is to govern. In the case put, therefore, C. will retain his family estate and will also receive £10,000 portion of his legacy of £30,000, leaving to B. £20,000 other portion of the legacy of £30,000 to compensate him for the value of the estate of which he has been disappointed by C.'s election against the instrument. The conclusion from all the cases is summed up by Mr. Swanston in his note to Gretton v. Haward (e) as follows:—

1st, That in the event of election to take against the instrument, courts of equity assume jurisdiction to sequester the benefits intended for the refractory donee, in order to secure *compensation* to those whom his election disappoints.

2nd, That the surplus, after compensation, does not devolve, as undisposed of, but is restored to the donee, the purpose being satisfied for which alone the court controlled his legal right.

⁽e) I Swanst. 433; see also Rogers v. Jones, L. R. 3 Ch. Div. 688; Pickersgill v. Rodger, L. R. 5 Ch. Div. 163.

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It may be useful to warn the student carefully to No election discriminate this class of cases where a person disposes proper, in cases where of that which is not his own, and confers on the real the testator makes two owner of that property some other benefits, from another bequests of apparently similar but in reality dissimilar class of his own procases, where a testator makes two or more separate same instrudevises or bequests of his own property in the same instrument. In this latter case, the gifts, whether beneficial or onerous, being both of them the property of the donor, the donee may take what is beneficial and reject what is onerous, unless it appear on the will that it was the intention of the testator to make the acceptance of the burden a condition of the benefit (f); but this class of cases does not fall properly within the equitable doctrine of election, and the student should accordingly wholly dismiss it from his mind.

As the doctrine of election depends on the principle There must be of compensation, it follows that that doctrine will not a fund from which compenbe applicable where there is no fund from which com- sation can be pensation can be made. Or, speaking more accurately some property and plainly, the doctrine of election only properly of donor's own. arises where the donor, or pretending donor, really puts into his gifts, or pretended gifts, or some or one of them, some property that actually is his own, at the same time that he affects to give away the property This will come out clearly upon contrasting of others. the two next following cases:-

Firstly, in the case of Bristow v. Warde (g), decided in Bristow v. 1794, it appeared that a father had the power of appoint- Warde,—case ing certain moneys or stock (£6000 South Sea stock) adding any property of among his children, and that the appointment-funds in his own. question were given to the children in default of appointment by the father; it also appeared that the father by his will appointed portion of the funds to his

⁽f) Warren v. Rudall, I J. & H. 13.

⁽g) 2 Ves. Jr. 336. See also In re Fowler's Trust, 27 Beav. 362.

children (the proper appointees), and the remaining part thereof to X., Y., and Z. (who, as not being children, were improper appointees); and it also appeared that the father did not in or by his will give any property of his own to the children. The court held that the children might keep their appointed shares, and also take (as in default of appointment) the shares appointed to X., Y., and Z.; and that, in fact, the children were not bound to elect. "The doctrine of election," said the Lord Chancellor, "never can be applied; but where, if an election is made contrary to the will, the interest that would pass by the will can be laid hold of to compensate for what is taken away; therefore, in all cases, there must be some free disposable property given to the person, which can be made a compensation for what the testator takes away. That cannot apply to this case, where no part of his property is comprised in the will but that which he had power to distribute." On the other hand, in the case of Whistler v. Webster (h), also decided in 1794, it appeared that a father had the power of appointing certain moneys (£,3000) among his children, and that the appointment-funds in question were given to his children in default of appointment by the father; it also appeared that the father by his will appointed portion of the funds to his children (the proper appointees), and the remaining part thereof to X., Y., and Z. (who, as not being children, were improper appointees); but it also appeared that the father in and by his will gave also certain property of his own to the children. The court held that the children were bound to elect, keeping (if they chose) their appointed shares and the other benefits given to them in the will, and in that case not interfering with the shares improperly appointed to X., Y., and Z.; or else taking (if they chose) the entire appointment-fund to them-

Whistler v. Webster, case of donor adding some property of his own. selves, and out of the other benefits given to them by the will compensating X., Y., and Z. for the value of the shares improperly imported.

Considerable difficulty often attaches to cases of election when complicated, as the two lastly before stated cases were, with special powers of appointment, and it becomes necessary therefore to consider with some particularity of detail the following group of election cases, that is to say,—

Cases of election under the execution of powers.

Election under (a.) Where, under a special power, an express ap-powers. (a.) As to perpointment is made to a stranger to the power, which son entitled in is therefore void, and a benefit is conferred by the appointment, same instrument, upon a person entitled, in default of -a true case appointment, the latter will be put to his election. Thus, "where a man having a power to appoint to A. a fund which, in default of appointment, is given to B., exercises the power in favour of C., and gives other benefits to B., although the execution is merely void, yet if B. will accept the gifts to him, he must convey the estate to C., according to the appointment."

default of

It has been said that where the donee of a power (2.) As to perby the same instrument appoints to a stranger, and son entitled under the confers benefits out of his own property upon an object power,—no of the power, the latter will be put to his election (i). properly so But it is submitted that in such a case the person who called. is the object of the power (not being also the person entitled in default of appointment) cannot with propriety be said to be put to his election, and for the following reasons. In order to raise a case of election, two essential circumstances, as we have seen, must concur:---

⁽i) Blacket v. Lamb, 14 Beav. 482; I L. C. 389.

1st, That property which belongs to one person (A.) must be given to another person by the testator.

2d, That the testator at the same time gives to A. property of his (the testator's) own.

In such a case of concurrence, and only in such a case, A. would be put to his election.

Suppose, then, that A. is the object of the power, B., the person entitled in default of appointment to A., and X. is the person in whose favour the appointment is actually made. The appointment in favour of X. is clearly a bad appointment, and therefore the property would pass to B. as in default of appointment, and if the testator has conferred any benefits on B., he (B.) will be put to his election. But no property which belongs to A. has been given to X.; for A. is but a volunteer as regards the donee of the power, and until the donee has exercised his power over the fund in favour of A., it is not A.'s property; therefore, it is clear that an essential element to raise election as against A., is wanting. None of A.'s property has been given to another. But if A. had combined in himself both the character of the object of the power, and the person entitled to the fund in default (i.e., if in the case put, A. and B. were the same individual), he would, if he had received any benefits from the donee of the power, be put to his election. not as A., the object of the power, but as the person (B.) entitled, in default of appointment (j).

But the same thing in effect.

The student will, however, observe that in the case supposed of A. and B. being different persons, if A.

⁽j) Whistler v. Webster, 2 Ves. Jr. 367.

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gets any portion of the appointment-fund by any appointment thereof to him, he will be simply thankful for it and say nothing about what is appointed to X.; and if in addition A. gets also some property of the testator's own, he will simply be more thankful (in fact, A, will be doubly thankful), and again will say nothing about what is appointed to X. And that is all the author means by saying that A. will not be put to his election.

(b.) It has been decided "that where there is an Blacket v. absolute appointment by will in favour of a proper absolute apobject of the power, and that appointment is followed pointment, by attempts to modify the interest so appointed, in tions modifya manner which the law will not allow (e.g., being pointment,attempts to evade the rule against perpetuities) (k), When such directions are the court reads the will as if all the passages in which invalid. such attempts are made were swept out of it, for all intents and purposes; " i.e., not only so far as they attempt to regulate the quantum of interest to be enjoyed by the appointee in the settled property, but also so far as they might otherwise have been relied upon as raising a case of election (l). On the other When such directions are hand, if the attempted modifications are in themselves valid, and such as the law will in ordinary cases allow, and are raise a case of election. also sufficiently clear and imperative, amounting in substance to the creation of a trust or to a direct gift, then the question of election would arise, and would have to be answered upon the principles already explained. In other words, to cite the words of the Master of the Rolls in Blacket v. Lamb (m), "The question resolves itself into this, whether these words (meaning the precatory words in which it was attempted to modify the interests appointed to the

⁽k) Wollaston v. King, L. R. 8 Eq. 165.(l) Woolridge v. Woolridge, Johns. 63.

⁽m) 14 Beav. 482. And see the judgment of James, V.-C., in Wollaston v. King, L. R. 8 Eq. 165.

children) amount to a direct appointment in favour of the grandchildren. If they do amount to such an appointment, there is not, I think, any doubt but that a case of election is raised. But if, on the other hand, these precatory words are to be treated as anything short of an actual appointment, that is, if they do not form a portion of the appointment executed by the testator, in that case they must be treated as a condition or something extraneous to the appointment superadded to it; and if so, and if the superadded condition be inconsistent with the power, it is merely void, and no case of election will arise. I am of opinion, that if the words had been used by the testator with reference to a fund which was wholly within his own control, to deal with as he might think fit. these words would have created a trust, and that his children, taking the gifts under the will of the testator, would have taken them charged with the duty of disposing of them according to that will; or, in other words, that a trust would have been created by implication in favour of the objects mentioned in the words of the gift, the execution of which this court would have enforced."

It would seem, accordingly, that where there is a clause of forfeiture of the legacies on non-compliance with any such attempted modification of the appointed interests, a case of election would be raised (n), assuming that the other conditions requisite for raising a case of election are present.

Ineffectual attempts to dispose of property by will, —examples of raising or not election,—(a.) Infancy.

Questions of election have also arisen, where a testator has attempted to dispose of his property by an instrument ineffectual for that purpose.

(a.) Infancy.—No case of election will be raised

⁽n) King v. King, 15 Ir. Ch. R 479; Boughton v. Boughton, 2 Ves. Sr. 12.

where there is a want of capacity to devise real estate by reason of infancy. Thus, under the old law, where an infant whose will was valid as to personalty, but invalid as to realty, gave a legacy to his heir-at-law, and devised real estate to another person, the heir-at-law would not have been obliged to elect between the legacy and the real estate, which descended to him in consequence of the invalidity of the devise: he might have taken both (o); that is to say, he might have kept the real estate coming to him by descent in spite of the will, and also have taken the personal estate coming to him under the will.

- (b.) Coverture.—Nor will a case of election arise if (b.) Coverture. there is a want of capacity to make a will arising from coverture. Thus, where a feme covert made a valid appointment by will to her husband, under a power, and also bequeathed to another person personal estate, to which the power did not extend, the husband was not put to his election, but was held to be entitled to the benefit appointed to him under the power, and also to the property ineffectually bequeathed by his wife, to which he was entitled jure mariti (p). And the rule is the same where the will is valid at the time of execution, but afterwards becomes inoperative (q).
- (c.) Previous to the Wills Act, I Vict., c. 26, where (c.) Wills be a testator, by a will not properly attested for the devise for TVict. of freeholds, but sufficient to pass personal estate, devised freehold estates away from the heir, and gave him a legacy, the question has arisen whether the heirat-law was obliged to elect between the legacy and the freehold estate, which descended to him in consequence

⁽o) Hearle v. Greenbank, 3 Atk. 695, I Ves. Sr. 298; I Vict., c. 26,

⁽p) Rich v. Cockell, 9 Ves. 369. (q) Blaiklock v. Grindle, L. R. 7 Eq. 215.

of the devise away from him being inoperative; it is clearly settled that he would not be obliged to elect (r)unless the legacy were given to him with an express condition that if he disputed, or did not comply with the whole of the will, he should forfeit all benefit under it (s). On the other hand, if the will was properly attested for the devise of freehold estates, and the testator attempted to thereby dispose of after-purchased lands, which previous to the Wills Act, I Vict., c. 26, he could not effectually do, then the heir taking any personal estate under the will was bound to elect between that personal estate and such after-purchased lands so ineffectually attempted to be disposed away from him (t).

Election with reference to dower,-(a.) At law,express words. (b.) In equity, -express sary implication.

Necessary implication from concurwidow with gift of other lands inconsistent with her right of dower.

Where the Dower Act (3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 105) does not apply, that is, in the case of all widows married on or before the 1st January 1834, a widow may at law be put to her election by express words between her express words or neces- dower and a gift conferred on her (u). In equity she may be put to her election between dower and a gift conferred on her, by manifest (i.e., necessary) implication, demonstrating the intention of the donor to exclude her from her legal right to dower; but this intention will not be implied unless the instrument rence of gift to contains provisions essentially inconsistent with the assertion of her right to dower. The question then arises, What is a gift essentially inconsistent with her assertion of that right? It has been long settled that a devise, by a testator to his widow, of part of the lands of which she is dowable, is not essentially inconsistent with her claim to dower out of the remainder (v). A devise of lands out of which the widow is dowable

⁽r) Sheddon v. Goodrich, 8 Ves. 481.

⁽s) Boughton v. Boughton, 2 Ves. Sr. 12.

⁽t) Schroder v. Schroder, Kay, 578; Sugden's Concise View, 127.

⁽u) Nottley v. Palmer, 2 Drew. 93. (v) Lawrence v. Laurence, 2 Vern. 365.

on trust for sale, is not essentially inconsistent with her claim to dower out of those lands, even though the interest of a part of the proceeds of the sale is given to her (w); nor will a mere gift of an annuity to the testator's widow, although charged on all the testator's property, be so essentially inconsistent with. as to exclude, her right to dower (x).

The provisions which have generally been held to Example of a be essentially inconsistent with the widow's right to gift inconsisdower, are those which prescribe to the devisees a widow's right of dower. certain mode of enjoyment, which necessitates their having the entirety of the property. Thus, in Butcher v. Kemp (y), where the testator, having devised a freehold farm, containing about 136 acres, to trustees and their heirs, during the minority of his daughter, directed them to carry on the business of the farm, or let it on lease, during the daughter's minority, and the testator devised other lands to his widow for her life, and also gave her specific and pecuniary legacies, it was held that the widow was put to her election. Sir John Leach, V.-C., said, "The testator's plain intention is that the trustees should, for the benefit of his daughter, have authority to continue his business in the entire farm which he himself occupied, consisting of about 136 acres, and this intention must be disappointed if the widow could have assigned to her a third part of this land "(z).

N.B.—It is hardly necessary to mention, that dower under the recent Dower Act (when that Act applies) is of too fragile and defeasible a character to raise any questions about election.

⁽w) Ellis v. Lewis, 3 Hare, 310.

⁽x) Holdich v. Holdich, 2 Y. & C. C. C. 19.

⁽y) 5 Mad. 61. (z) Miall v. Brain, 4 Mad. 119; Birmingham v. Kirwan, 2 Sch. & L. 444.

The intention of the testator for.

And speaking generally; in all cases whatsoever, in is to be sought order to raise a case of election, there must appear on the will or instrument itself, a clear intention on the part of the testator to dispose of that which is not his own, although (as we have seen) it is immaterial whether he knew the property not to be his own, or by mistake conceived it to be his own: if the intention in either case appears clearly, his disposition will be sufficient to raise a case of election (a), there being present of course the other requisites as above defined. On the other hand, if the intention does not clearly appear on the face of the will, but the words appearing to show the intention are capable of being otherwise satisfied, then there will arise no case for election.

Where the testator has a limited interest, he is presumed to ĥave given his own, and not to have attempted to give what was not his own.

Accordingly where the testator devises an estate in which he has a limited interest at law, the court will lean, as far as possible, to a construction which would make him deal only with that to which he is entitled, and not with that over which he has no disposing power, inasmuch as every testator must, primâ facie, be taken to "have intended to dispose only of what he had power to dispose of; and, in order to raise a case of election, it must be clear that there was an intention on the part of the testator to dispose of what he had not the right or power to dispose of "(b).

Shuttleworth v. Greaves,-a case of shares in a specified company.

Thus, in Shuttleworth v. Greaves (c), the wife of F. S. was the only child of A., who was entitled to certain shares in the Nottingham Canal, which upon A.'s death were transferred into the names of "F. S. and wife," the wife having been her father's administratrix. F. S. was afterwards, until his death, treated

⁽a) Stephens v. Stephens, I De G. & J. 62; Welby v. Welby, 2 V. & B. 199.

⁽b) Wintour v. Clifton, 8 De G. M. & G. 651.

⁽c) 4 My. & Cr. 35.

by the canal company as proprietor of the shares, and received the dividends upon them, and was elected to be and also acted as a member of a committee, which, by the Company's Act of Parliament, was required to consist of proprietors of two or more shares. by his will bequeathed what he called "all my shares in the Nottingham Canal Navigation," and all his personal estate to trustees, in trust for his wife for life, remainder over to his brothers and sisters absolutely. The testator had no such canal shares at all, unless those so transferred into the names of his wife and himself should be considered his. Held, that the words of the will amounted to a bequest of the particular shares before-mentioned, and that the widow was bound to elect.

On the other hand, in Dummer v. Pitcher(d), by the Dummer v. testator's will "he bequeathed the rents of his lease-case of fundedhold houses, and the interest of all his funded property property generally. or estate," upon trust for his wife, for life, and after her decease, on trust, to pay divers legacies of stock. The testator had, in fact, no funded property at the date of his will; but there was at that date funded property standing in the joint names of himself and his wife. After his death, the wife claimed, by survivorship, the funded property standing in the names of her husband and herself—it was contended that, as she took benefits under the will, she ought to be put to her election between those benefits and the funded property. It was held, however, that the widow ought not to be put to her election—that she took the stock by survivorship, and that the testator not having expressed on the face of the will any intention to treat the stock in question as his own, no question of election arose (e).

⁽d) 2 My. & K. 262.

⁽e) See Usticke v. Peters, 4 K. & J. 437.

Evidence dehors the instrument, not admissible to make out a case of election.

It is now clearly settled that parol evidence dehors the will, is not admissible for the purpose of showing that a testator, considering property to be his own, which did not actually belong to him, intended to comprise it in a general devise or bequest. Clementson v. Gandy (f), where parol evidence was tendered for the purpose of showing that the testatrix intended to pass, under a general bequest, certain property in which she had only a life interest, supposing it to be her own absolutely, so as to put a legatee who had an interest in the property to his election, Lord Langdale refused to admit the evidence. "I am of opinion," observed his Lordship, "that this evidence cannot be admitted. It is tendered for the purpose of showing that the testatrix bequeathed property as her own which did not belong to her, and that she intended to leave a considerable residue for charitable purposes, which, by reason of that mistake, turns out to be much less than she is alleged to have intended; and it is argued that this raises a case of election. The intention to dispose must, in all cases, appear by the will alone. In cases which require it, the court may look at external circumstances, and consequently receive evidence of such circumstances for the purpose of ascertaining the meaning of the terms used by the testator. But parol evidence is not to be resorted to, except for the purpose of proving facts which make intelligible something in the will which, without the aid of extrinsic evidence, cannot be understood "(q).

Persons under disabilities. (1.) Married women.they elect as

(a.) Married women.—Although the practice as to the mode of election by married women has been somewhat fluctuating, an inquiry having occasionally been

⁽f) I Keen, 309.

⁽g) Stratton v. Best, I Ves. Jr. 285; Smith v. Lyne, 2 Y. & C. C. C. 345; Honywood v. Forster, 30 Beav. 14.

directed as to which interest was most beneficial for to land, by them, and they were then required to elect within a deed acknowlimited time after the result of the inquiry (h);—it is to money, by direction of now considered a settled thing that a married woman court on can elect so as to affect her interest in real property at inquiry. the least; and if she should desire to do so, she must signify her election by deed acknowledged (i). In one case where she had proposed to elect, but the deed was not acknowledged, it was stated by Wood, V.-C., that the court could order a conveyance according to the purport of the unacknowledged deed, upon the ground that the married woman should not avail herself of her own fraud (j),—a ground the proof of which is always difficult in itself, and the necessity of proving it would, of course, involve the parties in a tedious action. Unfortunately, in the case of personal estate, a deed acknowledged is not always available; and in that case, the married woman is unable to elect, otherwise than under the direction of the court upon an inquiry as to which of the two things is the more beneficial for her (k).

(b.) Infants.—With reference to infants also, the (2.) Infants, practice is not quite uniform, being of course adapted of age; or else to the necessities of the case. Thus, in *Streatfield* v. elect by direction of court Streatfield (1), the period of election was deferred on inquiry. until the infant came of age; but in other cases there has been a reference to inquire what would be most beneficial to the infant (m), and the court has elected upon the result of the inquiry being certified.

⁽h) Davis v. Page, 9 Ves. 350; Wilson v. Townshend, 2 Ves. Jr. 693.

⁽i) 3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 74, s. 77. (j) Barrow v. Barrow, 4 K. & J. 409; Willoughby v. Middleton, 2 J. & H. 344.

⁽k) Cooper v. Cooper, L. R. 7 H. L. 53; see In re Robin's Estate, W. N. 1879, 95.

⁽l) I L. C. 369. (m) Bigland v. Huddleston, 3 Bro. C. C. 285 n.; Ashburnham v. Ashburnham, 13 Jur. 1111.

(3.) Lunatics, they elect by direction of court on inquiry.

(c.) Lunatics.—With reference to lunatics, the practice is to refer it to chambers or to some official or agreed referee to certify or report (as occasionally in the case of infants) what would be most beneficial to the lunatic, and the court has elected upon the result of the inquiry being certified. Semble, the court would not defer the matter until the lunacy was superseded, unless, perhaps, where a supersedeas was in immediate prospect, or was in progress.

Privileges of persons com-

Persons compelled to elect are entitled previously to persons compelled to elect. ascertain the relative value of their own property and that conferred upon them (n), and may file a bill to have all necessary accounts taken and inquiries made (o). An election made under a mistake of fact will not be binding, for in all cases of election, the court, while it enforces the rule of equity that the party shall not avail himself of both his claims, is anxious to secure to him the option of either, and not to hold him concluded by equivocal acts, performed, perhaps, in ignorance or under a misapprehension of the value of the funds (p).

What is deemed an election.

Election may be either express, in which case no question can arise; or it may be implied. And in the latter case, considerable difficulty often arises in deciding what acts of acceptance or acquiescence amount to an implied election; and this question must be determined (like any other question of fact) upon the circumstances of each particular case, and not on any general principle of law. It would be necessary to inquire into the circumstances of the property against which the election is supposed to have been made, for if a party, not being called on to elect, continues in

⁽n) Boynton v. Boynton, I Bro. C. C. 445.
(o) Buttricke v. Brodhurst, 3 Bro. C. C. 88.

⁽p) Wake v. Wake, 3 Bro. C. C. 255; Kidney v. Coussmaker, 12 Ves. 136.

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the receipt of the rents and profits of both properties, such receipt cannot be construed into an election to take one and reject the other; and in like manner. if one of the properties does not yield rent to be received, and the party liable to elect deals with it as his own, as, for instance, by mortgaging it (particularly if this be done with the concurrence of the party entitled to call for an election), such dealing will be unavailable to prove an actual election as against the receipt of the rent of the other property (q). Any acts to be binding upon a person must be done with the intention of electing (r).

It is difficult to lay down any rule as to what length Length of of time, after acts done from which election is usually presumption. implied, will be binding on a party, and prevent him from setting up the plea of ignorance of his rights (s). But, on the other hand, it must be remembered that a person may by his conduct suffer specific enjoyment by others until it becomes inequitable to disturb the rights that have meanwhile arisen (t).

A person who does not elect within the time limited, when a time is limited, will be considered as having elected to take against the instrument putting him to his election (u), Semble.

380, 387.
(s) Reynard v. Spence, 4 Beav. 103; Sopwith v. Maughan, 30 Beav.

⁽q) Padbury v. Clark, 2 Mac. & G. 298.

⁽r) Stratford v. Powell, I Ball. & B. I; Dillon v. Parker, I Swanst.

⁽c) Tibbits v. Tibbits, 19 Ves. 663. (u) Decree in Streatfield v. Streatfield, I Swanst. 447; but see Fytche v. Fytche, L. R. 7 Eq. 494.

CHAPTER XII.

PERFORMANCE.

Equity imputes an intention to fulfil an obligation.

THE doctrine of performance is based upon the maxim of equity, which imputes an intention to fulfil an obligation; in other words, that when a person covenants to do an act, and he does some other act that is capable of being applied towards a performance of his covenant, he shall be presumed to have had the intention of performing his covenant when he did the other act.

Under this subject two classes of cases occur.

- I. Where there is a covenant to purchase and settle lands, and a purchase of lands is made, but is not expressed to be in pursuance of such covenant, and no settlement of the purchased lands is made.
- II. Where there is a covenant to *leave* personalty, and the covenantor dies intestate, and thereby property comes in fact to the covenantee.
- Covenant to purchase land and land is purchased.
- I. The doctrine upon the first branch of this subject was fully discussed in the leading case of *Lechmere* v. *Earl of Carlisle* (a). There, Lord Lechmere, upon his marriage with Lady Elizabeth Howard, daughter of the Earl of Carlisle, covenanted to lay out within one year after his marriage £6000, her portion, and £24,000 (amounting in the whole to £30,000) in the

⁽a) 3 Peere Wms. 211; Ca. t. Talb. 80.

purchase of freehold lands in possession, in the south part of Great Britain, with the consent of the Earl of Carlisle and the Lord Morpeth (the trustees), to be settled on Lord Lechmere for life, remainder for so much as would amount to £800 a year to Lady Lechmere, for her jointure, remainder to first and other sons in tail male, remainder to Lord Lechmere, his heirs and assigns for ever; and Lord Lechmere also covenanted that until the £30,000 should be laid out in lands, interest should be paid to the persons entitled to the rents and profits of the lands when purchased. Lord Lechmere was seised of some lands in fee at the time of his marriage; and after his marriage he purchased some estates in fee of about £500 per annum, some estates for lives, and some reversionary estates in fee expectant on lives, and also contracted for the purchase of some estates in fee in possession; he then died intestate, without issue, and without having made any settlement of any estate. None of the aforesaid purchases or contracts were made by Lord Lechmere with the consent of the trustees. Upon a bill being filed by Mr. Lechmere, the heir-at-law of Lord Lechmere, for specific performance of the covenant, and to have the £30,000 laid out as therein agreed; it was held by Jekyll, M.R., that he was entitled to specific performance of such covenant, and that none of the land which was permitted to descend to the heir was to be taken as part performance of the covenant. on appeal, Talbot, L. C., reversed the decree of the Master of the Rolls as to the freehold lands purchased and contracted to be purchased in fee simple in possession after the covenant, though with but part of the £30,000, and left to descend; and these were declared to go in part performance of the covenant. His Lordship, after distinguishing and putting aside the question of satisfaction (b), which he said did not properly fall

⁽b) Wilcocks v. Wilcocks, 2 Vern. 558.

within the case, continued as follows:--" As to all the "estates purchased previously to the articles, there is no "colour to say they can be intended in performance of "the articles; and as to the leaseholds for life, and the "reversion in fee expectant on the estates for life, it "cannot be taken they were purchased in pursuance of "the articles, because they could not answer the end of "them. But as to the other purchases (in fee simple "in possession), why may they not be intended as "bought with a view to make good the articles? Lord "Lechmere was bound to lay out the money with the "liking of the trustees, but there was no obligation to "lay it out all at once, nor was it hardly possible to "meet with such a purchase as would exactly tally "with it. Parts of the land purchased are in fee "simple in possession, in the south part of Great "Britain, and near to the family estate. But it is "said they are not bought with the liking of the "trustees. The intention of naming trustees was to "prevent unreasonable purchases, and the want of this "circumstance, if the purchases are agreeable in other "respects, is no reason to hinder why they should not "be bought in performance of the articles. "objected that the articles say the land shall be con-"veyed immediately. It is not necessary that every "parcel should be conveyed as soon as bought, but "after the whole was purchased, for it never could be "intended that there should be several settlements "under the same articles. Where a man is under an "obligation to lay out £30,000 in lands, and he lays "out part as he can find purchases, which are attended "with all material circumstances, it is more natural to "suppose those purchases made with regard to the "covenant than without it. When a man lies under "an obligation to do a thing, it is more natural to "ascribe it to the obligation he lies under than to a "voluntary act independent of the obligation."

From the exhaustive judgment above quoted, be-Deductions sides the principal point for which the case was cited, from Lechmere we may consider four other points in connection with (Earl). this subject as well established:—

- I. Where the lands purchased are of less value I. Perform-than the lands covenanted to be purchased and settled, good, prothey will be considered as purchased in part perform-tanto. ance of the covenant.
- 2. Where the covenant points to a future purchase 2. Previously of lands, it cannot be presumed that lands of which lands do not the covenantor was seised at the time of the covenant, count. descending to his heir, were intended to be taken in part performance of it.
- 3. It cannot be presumed that property of a diffe-3. Lands purrent nature from that covenanted to be purchased by suitable, do the covenantor, was intended as a performance (c).
- 4. Although by the settlement the consent of the 4. Trustees' trustee is required, still the absence of that consent to purchase, will not necessarily prevent the presumption of performance from arising, if the other circumstances of the purchase are favourable to such presumption; and so immaterial is the absence of the trustees' consent, that in the case of Sowden v. Sowden (d), the doctrine of Lechmere v. Earl of Carlisle was extended to a case even where the covenant was to pay money to trustees, to be laid out by them in a purchase of land, and the covenantor himself purchased land, and took a conveyance to himself of the fee, and died intestate without having made a settlement.

It is to be observed, that a covenant to purchase Covenant to

⁽c) Pinnell v. Hallet, Amb. 106. (d) 1 Bro. C. C. 582.

purchase does not create a lien on lands purchased.

lands generally is a mere specialty debt, and will not create a specific lien on the lands afterwards purchased, although the presumption may arise that they were purchased by the covenantor, intending them to go in performance of the covenant in his marriage articles; and, consequently, such a covenant will not affect a purchaser or mortgagee of the lands even with notice (e). But it might be otherwise if the covenant was to acquire and settle certain specified lands; and it would certainly be otherwise if the covenant was to settle specified lands already acquired by the covenantor (f).

Right of cestui que trust to follow trust fund,—distin-guished from performance.

It may be well to refer here briefly to a class of cases, occasionally referred to the head of performance, but distinguishable therefrom, and depending in fact upon the rule that the cestui que trust of a fund is entitled to follow that fund into any subject-matter into which it may have been wrongfully converted. In the case of Trench v. Harrison (q), the trustees of a marriage settlement being empowered by it to invest the trust-funds in freeholds or copyholds of inheritance, with the consent of the husband and wife, authorised the husband to purchase a certain estate, as an investment of part of the trust-funds; and afterwards they sold out a sufficient part of those funds to pay for the estate, and the husband received the The estate was copyhold for lives, and the proceeds. purchase was made without the wife's consent. was held, nevertheless, that as between the husband and the trustees, he must be considered to have purchased the estate for them. These cases of following trust-money into land have some resemblance to the

 ⁽e) Deacon v. Smith, 3 Atk. 323.
 (f) Mornington v. Keane, 2 De G. & J. 292.

⁽g) 17 Sim. 111; and see Taylor v. Plumer, 3 Maul. & Selw. 562.

case of performance, properly so called; but in essentials they differ materially. In the case of performance the husband is under an obligation to purchase the land, while in the cases of following trust-money, the husband is under no such obligation, and therefore all turns on the circumstance that the purchase was in fact made with trust-money, with regard to which it is a well-settled rule that the money may, in most cases, be followed into the land in which it is invested (h).

II. The second class of cases ranked under the head II. Covenant of performance is, where a husband covenants to leave by will, and his wife a gross sum of money, or part of his personalty, share under the Statute of and he dies intestate, so that she becomes entitled to Distribution. a portion of his personal property under the Statute of Distributions. The question sometimes arises, whether such distributive share is a performance of the covenant. or whether she can claim both the distributive share and the money due under the covenant. The solution of this question depends on the two following rules which the cases on the point suggest:-

I. When the death of the husband occurs at the (r.) When hustime, or previous to the time, when the obligation band's death ought, by the terms of the covenant, to be performed, before time when the obher distributive share will be taken as a performance ligation acof the covenant, pro tanto or in toto, as that share is, butive share a on the one hand, less than, or, on the other hand, performance. equal to, or greater than, the sum due under the covenant.

Thus, in Blandy v. Widmore (i), A. covenanted, pre-Blandy v. viously to his marriage, to leave his intended wife £620. a case of per-

⁽h) Lench v. Lench, 10 Ves. 511. (i) 2 L. C. 391.

formance in toto, where an immediate intestacy.

The marriage took place, and the husband died intestate. The wife became entitled to a moiety amounting to more than £620 of her husband's personal property, under the Statute of Distributions. The Lord Chancellor held, that this was a performance of the covenant, on the following ground—that the covenant was to be taken as not broken, for the husband had left

Goldsmid v. Goldsmid,the same, ing intestacy.

his widow £620 and upwards; that, therefore, she could not come in first as a creditor for the £620 under the covenant, and then for a moiety of the surplus under the statute. Similarly, in the case of Goldsmid v. Goldsmid (i), it was decided, on the authority of Blandy where a result- v. Widmore, that where the trusts of a testator's will failed, and his property became divisible as in case of intestacy, the widow's distributive share under the statute was a performance of the covenant by the husband under the marriage articles, that his executors should, after his death, pay her a certain sum of money. In his judgment, Sir T. Plumer, M.R., makes the following observations:—"Lord Eldon, in Garthshore v. Chalie (k), speaking of Blandy v. Widmore, and other cases, says, 'These cases are distinct authorities that where a husband covenants to leave or to pay at his death a sum of money to a person who, independent of that agreement, by the relation between them and the provision of the law attending upon it, will take a provision, the covenant is to be construed with reference to that.' Considering the contract as made with that reference, it must be interpreted as intended to regulate what the widow is to receive, and consequently when the event of intestacy ensues, the single question is, Does she not obtain that for which she contracted? If the object of the covenant is that the executors of the husband shall pay to the widow a given sum, and in her character of widow, created by the same marriage contract, she in fact obtains from the executor or administrator that sum, the court is bound to consider that as payment under the covenant. These are not cases of an ordinary debt; during the life of the husband there is no breach of the covenant, no debt; the covenant is to pay after his death, and the inquiry is not whether the payment of the distributive share is satisfaction, but a question perfectly distinct, whether it is performance."

2. Where the decease of the husband occurs after (2.) Wherehusband's death the obligation of the covenant has already arisen, or occurs after in other words, after a breach of such covenant, the obligation accrues, distributive share is not a performance of the tive share not obligation.

Thus in Oliver v. Brickland (1), the husband covenanted to pay a sum within two years after marriage. and if he died his executors should pay it. He lived after the two years and died intestate, leaving a larger sum than what he covenanted to pay, to devolve upon his widow as her distributive share. The Master of the Rolls held that she was entitled both to the money under the covenant and to her distributive share of the Here it will be seen that there was a breach of covenant before the death, and that from the moment of such breach a debt accrued due to the covenantee; whereas in the first class of cases the obligation to pay did not arise until the time at which the distributive share devolved.

Finally, it must be observed, that whereas in satis- Performance faction the presumption will not hold (at least, in the distinguished from satisfaccase of creditors) where the thing substituted is less tion. beneficial either in amount, or certainty, or time of

⁽l) Cited I Ves. Sr. I; 3 Atk. 420.

enjoyment, or otherwise, than the thing contracted for; in performance the thing done, even though less beneficial in amount, certainty, &c., than the thing contracted to be done, will, other circumstances concurring, be taken as performance *pro tanto* of the covenant (m).

⁽m) Cox's note to Blandy v. Widmore; I P. Wms. 323.

CHAPTER XIII.

SATISFACTION.

An important distinction exists between satisfaction Satisfaction and performance. Satisfaction, it is true, like pertention. Supposes intention; nevertheless, in satisfaction, the thing done is something different from the thing covenanted to be done, and is, in fact, a substitute for the thing covenanted to be done; whereas in performance, the identical act which the party contracted to do is considered to have been done (a).

The cases on the doctrine of satisfaction may be divided into four classes.

- I. Satisfaction of debts by legacies.
- II. Satisfaction of legacies by subsequent legacies.
- III. Satisfaction of legacies by portions.
- IV. Satisfaction of portions by legacies.

I. Satisfaction of debts by legacies.

I. Of debts by legacies.

The general rule is, "that if one, being indebted to another in a sum of money, does by his will give him a sum of money as great as, or greater than, the debt, without taking any notice at all of the debt, this shall nevertheless be in satisfaction of the debt, so that he shall not have both the debt and the legacy" (b). And this presumption is founded upon the maxim,

⁽a) Goldsmid v. Goldsmid, I Swanst. 211.

⁽b) Talbot v. Shrewsbury, Prec. Ch. 394; 2 L. C. 352.

Presumption not favoured.

Debitor non presumitur donare. But the presumption is not favoured by the court, and the court's leaning against the presumption has led it to lay hold of trifling circumstances in order to exclude the presumption altogether.

Rules.

From the various cases on the subject may be collected the following rules:—

Legacy imports bounty.

1. Words ordinarily employed to grant a legacy, show an intention of favour rather than an intention to fulfil an obligation, *i.e.*, "a legacy imports a bounty."

2. If legacy be equal to debt. 2. If the debtor bequeaths exactly the same sum, simpliciter, as the debt, it will be taken as a satisfaction. Debitor non presumitur donare (c).

3. If legacy be less than debt. 3. If the legacy be less than the debt, it has never been held to go in satisfaction, even $pro\ tanto\ (d)$.

4. Legacy greater than debt. 4. The legacy of a sum, *simpliciter*, greater than the debt will be taken as a satisfaction of the debt, and only imports bounty as to the excess of the legacy over the debt (e).

Debt contracted after will. 5. The presumption will not be raised where the debt of the testator was contracted subsequently to the making of the will; for the testator could have no intention of making any satisfaction for what was not at the time in existence (f).

6. Circumstances rebutting the presumption. 6. Equity will lay hold of slight circumstances to indicate an intention that the legacy shall not go as a satisfaction. A few cases will illustrate how strong

 ⁽c) Haynes v. Mico, I Bro. C. C. 130.
 (d) Eastwood v. Vinke, 2 P. Wms. 617.

⁽e) Talbot v. Shrewsbury, 2 L. C. 352.

⁽f) Cranmer's Case, 2 Salk. 508.

the leaning in equity is against the presumption of satisfaction.

Where there is an express direction in the will for Direction in will for paypayment of debts AND legacies, the court will, it seems, ment of debts infer that it was the intention of the testator that both the debt and the legacy should be paid to his creditor. Thus, in Chancey's case (q), A. being indebted for wages to a maid-servant who had lived with him a considerable time, give her a bond for £100, and in the consideration of the bond, it appeared to be for wages. Afterwards by his will, he gave her a legacy of £500, stating in his will that it was "for her long and faithful service;" and he directed that all his debts AND legacies should be paid. It was held, that the legacy was not a satisfaction of the debt due on the bond, and the maid-servant had both her debt and her legacy. The court said, that the testator, by the express words of his will, had devised "that all his debts and legacies should be paid;" and this £100 being then a debt, and the £500 being a legacy, it was as strong as if he had directed that both the bond and the legacy should be paid. But it is doubtful whether a direction Direction to to pay debts alone will be sufficient to rebut the pre- pay debts sumption of satisfaction. In Edmunds v. Lowe (h), Wood, V.-C., held that a charge of debts standing alone was not sufficient; nevertheless, the weight of authority seems to be in favour of the proposition, that if not absolutely sufficient in itself to rebut the presumption, such a charge is at least a strong circumstance against the presumption of satisfaction (i).

and legacies.

Another ground for avoiding the presumption of the Time for payment of legacy satisfaction of a debt by a legacy, arises where the time differing from that of debt.

⁽g) 1 P. Wms. 408; 2 L. C. 353. (i) Rowe v. Rowe, 2 De G. & Sm. 297, 298; Russel v. Hankins, 7 W. R. 314; Cole v. Willard, 25 Beav. 568; Pinchin v. Simms, 30 Beav. 119; Glover v. Hartcup, 34 Beav. 74.

fixed for the payment of the legacy is different from the time when payment of the debt is demandable. Thus, in Clarke v. Sewell (i), the testator gave a legacy of £10,000 to his mother, to be paid by the trustees one month after his decease. The mother was entitled to £2000 from the estate of her son, in consequence of his having succeeded to the stock-in-trade of his father, and payment of this £,2000 was demandable immediately upon the death of the son. It was held that there was no satisfaction—that in order to be so deemed, the £10,000 legacy ought to have become payable immediately on the testator's death, at which time the debt due from the son to the mother became payable; whereas, the legacy was to be paid one month after the testator's death (k). On the other hand, in Wathen v. Smith (1), where the legacy was payable at an earlier date than the money due under the settlement, and was therefore to the greater advantage of the legatee-creditor, it was held that the presumption of satisfaction arose.

Contingent legacy.

Where the legacy is contingent or uncertain, it will not be held a satisfaction of a debt. Thus, in Barret v. Beckford (m), a testator being under an obligation to pay an annuity to A., by his will gave the residue of his property to his mother and A. for life. It was held that this legacy of a moiety of the residue to A. was not a satisfaction of the annuity to A.; that in order that the gift should be deemed a satisfaction, it was necessary that the subject-matter of the gift and the debt should be exactly of the same nature, and of equal certainty. From the case of Devese v. Pontet(n), it will be seen that a gift, by will, of a residue to a wife, will not be a satisfaction of a debt due to her, and that the rule of Blandy v. Widmore in cases of

⁽j) 3 Atk. 96. (l) 4 Mad. 325.

⁽k) Haynes v. Mico, I Bro. Ch. Ca. 129. (m) I Ves. Sr. 519. (n) I Cox, 188.

intestacy is inapplicable to cases where there is an operative will (o).

The Roman Law used to hold, and English common The four sense agrees, that a payment may be less in any one modes of less. of four ways, viz., re,—i.e., in amount; loco,—i.e., in convenience of place; tempore,—i.e., in time; and causâ,—i.e., in quality.

If the like distinctions were familiar in English Law, all the foregoing cases of the court's leaning against satisfaction would be resolvable into one case, namely, a legacy of less than the debt.

II. Satisfaction of legacies by subsequent legacies. II. Satisfaction Two classes of cases occur under this head, viz.:-

of legacies by subsequent legacies.

- (a.) Where the legacies are by the same instrument.
- (b.) Where the legacies are by different instruments.
- (I.) Where legacies of quantity in the same instru- (I.) Under the ment, whether a will or codicil, are given to the same ment. person simpliciter, and are of equal amount, one only (a.) Equal will be good, nor will small differences in the way in substitutive. which the gifts are conferred afford internal evidence that the testator intended they should be cumulative. Thus, in *Greenwood* v. *Greenwood* (p), the testatrix gave "to her niece, Mary Cook, the wife of John Cook, £,500," and afterwards in the same will, amongst many other legacies, "to her cousin, Mary Cook, £500 for her own use and disposal, notwithstanding her coverture." It was held that Mary Cook was entitled to one legacy only, of £500, and that the same was for her separate use.

⁽o) Bartlett v. Gillard, 3 Russ. 149.

⁽p) I Bro. C. C. 31 n.

(b.) Unequal legacies are cumulative.

Where, however, the legacies given by the same instrument are of unequal amount, they will be considered cumulative (q).

(2.) Under different instruments,-Legacies whether equal cumulative.

Unless same motive expressed and same sum.

(2.) Where a testator by different testamentary instruments has given legacies of quantity simpliciter to the same person, the court, considering that he who has or unequal are given more than once, must, primâ facie, mean more than one gift, awards to the legatee all the legacies, and it is immaterial whether the subsequent legacy differs or not in any particulars from the prior one (r). But though the legacies are in different instruments, if they are not given simpliciter, but the motive of the gift is expressed, and in such instruments the same motive is expressed, and the same sum is given, the court considers these two coincidences as raising a presumption that the testator did not, by a subsequent instrument, mean another gift, but only a repetition of the former gift (s). But the court raises this presumption only where the double coincidence occurs, of the same motive and the same sum, in both instruments. For if in either instrument there be, on the one hand, no motive, or a different or additional motive expressed, and the sum be the same in both instruments (t), or, on the other hand, though the same motive be expressed in different instruments, yet the sums are different (u), the presumption will be in favour of cumulation rather than of substitution. Where, however, a second instrument expressly refers to the first, or where, by intrinsic evidence, the later instrument was a mere revision, ex-

⁽q) Hooley v. Hatton, 1 Bro. C. C. 390 n.; Curry v. Pile, 2 Bro. C. C. 225; Yockney v. Hansard, 3 Hare, 620.

⁽r) Roch v. Callen, 6 Hare, 531; Russell v. Dickson, 4 H. L.Cas. 293.
(s) Benyon v. Benyon, 17 Ves. 34.
(t) Roch v. Callen, 6 Hare, 531; Ridges v. Morrison, 1 Bro. C. C. 388.
(u) Hurst v. Beach, 5 Mad. 352; Baby v. Miller, 1 E. & A. 218.

planation, or copy of the former, it will so far be held substitutional (v).

As to the question, when extrinsic evidence is re-Extrinsic eviceivable in favour of or against the presumption, the dence, when admissible and authorities seem to lead to the following conclusions (w). when not.

(a.) That where the court itself raises the presump- where the tion against double legacies—where, for instance, two court raises the presumplegacies of equal amount are given by one instrument, tion,—evidence to conparol evidence is admissible to show that the testator firm instruintended the legatee to take both, for that is in support sible. of the apparent intention of the will, and is in fact in restoration of the plain effect of the instrument.

(b.) But where the court does not raise the pre-where the sumption — where, for instance, legacies of equal court does not raise the preamount are given simpliciter by different instruments sumption,-no evidence -parol evidence is not admissible to show that the to contradict testator intended the legatee to take one only, for that admissible. is in opposition to the will, and is in destruction of the plain effect of the instrument. Parol evidence being therefore excluded in this case, the question becomes one solely of construction (x).

III. The satisfaction or, as it is more correctly III. and IV. termed, the ademption (y) of a legacy by a portion; Satisfaction of legacy by porand.

tion, and vice versa.

IV. The satisfaction of a portion by a legacy.

⁽v) Fraser v. Byng, 1 Russ. & My. 90; Coote v. Boyd, 2 Bro. C. C. 521; Currie v. Pye, 17 Ves. 462; and see Whyte v. Whyte, L. R. 17 Eq. 50.

⁽w) 2 L. C. 335. (x) Hurst v. Beach, 5 Mad. 351; Hall v. Hill, 1 Dr. & War. 94; Lee v. Pain, 4 Hare, 216.

⁽y) "When the will is made first, and the settlement afterwards, it is always treated as a case of what is called ademption -that is to say, the benefits given by the settlement are considered to be an ademption of the same benefits given to the same child by the will. "With reference to cases . . . of a previous settlement and a

General rule.

"Where a parent gives a legacy to a child, not stating the purpose with reference to which he gives it, the court understands him as giving a portion, and by a sort of artificial rule—in the application of which legitimate children have been very harshly treated—upon an artificial notion, and a sort of feeling called a leaning against double portions—if the father advances a portion on the marriage of that child the portion is presumed to be an ademption of the legacy pro tanto, or in toto, as the money advanced is respectively less than, or equal to, or greater than the sum expressed to be given as a legacy" (z).

The following observations apply generally as well to the ademption of a legacy by a portion, as to the satisfaction of a portion by a legacy:—

Rule does not apply as to legacies and portions to a stranger, including (for this purpose) an illegitimate child.

1. In the case of double provisions, the doctrine of satisfaction does not in general apply to legacies and portions to strangers, but only where the parental relation, or its equivalent, exists. If, therefore, a person give a legacy to a mere stranger, and then make a settlement on that stranger; or first agree to make a settlement on that stranger, and then bequeath a legacy to him; the stranger is entitled to claim under both instruments: and for the purpose of this doctrine it is settled that an illegitimate child is, in the eye of the law, a stranger; and that, unless other circumstances are found than the bare relation of parentage "by nature," the illegitimate child is at liberty to claim a double provision (a).

subsequent will . . . it is now quite settled that there is no difference between the two cases, beyond the verbal difference that the term satisfaction is used where the settlement has preceded the will, and the term ademption where the will has preceded the settlement. In substance there is no distinction between the principles applied to the two classes of cases."—Coventry v. Chichester, 2 H. & M. 159.

⁽z) Pym v. Lockyer, 5 My. & Cr. 29. (a) Ex parte Pye, 18 Ves. 140.

But the general rule will apply, though the testator Unless the stands neither in the legal nor assumed relation of a legacy and portion be parent to the legatee, if the legacy be given for a for the same particular purpose, and the testator advances money pose. for the same purpose (b).

The presumption against double portions has been The presumpcharacterised as a hard and artificial rule, but, on exa-tion against double pormination, it will appear to be founded on good sense tions is founded on and justice. In Suisse v. Lowther (c), Wigram, V.-C., good sense. makes the following remarks:-"The rule of presumption, as I before said, is against double portions as between parent and child; and the reason is thisa parent makes a certain provision for his children by will, if they attain 21, or marry, or require to be settled in life; he afterwards makes an advancement to a particular child. Looking at the ordinary dealings of mankind, the court concludes that the parent does not, when he makes that advancement, intend the will to remain in full force, and that he has satisfied in his lifetime the obligation which he would otherwise have discharged at his death; and having come to that conclusion, as the result of general experience, the court acts upon it, and gives effect to the presumption that a double provision was not intended. If, on the other hand, there is no such relation either natural or artificial, the gift proceeds from the mere bounty of the testator; and there is no reason within the knowledge of the court for cutting off anything which has in terms been given. The testator may give a certain sum by one instrument, and precisely the same sum by another; there is no reason why the court should assign any limit to that bounty, which is wholly arbitrary. The court, as between strangers, treats several gifts as prima facie cumulative. The consequence is,

6 Ch. 136. (c) 2 Hare, 435.

⁽b) Monck v. Monck, I Ball. & B. 303; Pankhurst v. Howell, L. R.

as Lord Eldon observed, that a natural child, who is in law a stranger to the father, stands in a better situation than a legitimate child, for the advancement in the case of the natural child is not, primâ facie, an ademption." But this anomaly is an accidental consequence of the rule, and the reasons of the rule which are good in themselves cannot be affected by what is accidental.

The presumption applies where the donor has placed himself to the donee.

2. The next general proposition is, that although the doctrine of satisfaction does not, as a general rule, apply where the donee is a stranger, it may and does in loco parentis apply where the donor has placed himself "in loco parentis" towards the beneficiary.

What is putting one's self in loco parentis.

As to what constitutes the quasi-parental relation, which is signified by the words, "putting one's self in loco parentis," the case of Powys v. Mansfield (d) is in There the question arose whether Sir John Barrington, who had by his will given £10,000 to one of his nieces, and had afterwards settled £10,000 on the marriage of the same niece, stood "in loco parentis" to the niece, so as to give rise to the application of the doctrine of satisfaction. The niece was one of the daughters of Sir John's brother, Fitzwilliam, and the general relations subsisting between the uncle and his nieces were thus stated in the evidence: "That Sir Fitzwilliam, in compliance with the wishes of Sir John, resided near Sir John, in the Isle of Wight, and maintained a more expensive establishment than his (Sir Fitzwilliam's) income (which did not exceed £,400 a year) would allow of; that Sir John and his brother lived on the most affectionate terms with each other: that for several years Sir John gave his brother £1000 a year; that he took the greatest interest in his nieces, behaved to them as a father, and always acted to them

⁽d) 6 Sim. 544; 3 My. & Cr. 359.

as the kindest of parents, not showing more partiality to one than to another; that he frequently gave them pocket money, and made them other presents, and occasionally advanced money to defray the expense of their clothing and education; that he allowed them to use his horses and carriages, and had them frequently to dine with him, and that one or other of them was almost always staying at his house; that he was consulted as to the appointment of their masters and governesses, and as to the marriages of such of them as were married; and that on the plaintiff's marriage, the terms of the settlement were negotiated between the plaintiff and Sir John, and their respective solicitors, without any interference on the part of Sir Fitzwilliam. Upon these facts, the Lord Chancellor Cottenham, reversing the decision of the Vice-Chancellor Grant, held that Sir John had placed himself "in loco parentis," making the following observations:—"The "authorities leave in some obscurity the question as to "what is to be considered as meant by the expression "'in loco parentis.' Lord Eldon, however, in Ex parte "Pye, has given to it a definition which I readily "adopt. He says, it is a person meaning to put him-"self in loco parentis, in the situation, that is to say, of "the person described as the lawful father of the child, "with reference to the office and duty of such father "to make provision for the child. The Vice-Chancellor "says it must be a person who has so acted towards The parent of "the child as that he has thereby imposed on himself the child may be alive. "a moral obligation to provide for it, and that the "designation will not hold where the child has a "father with whom it resides, and by whom it is "maintained. This seems to infer that the locus "parentis assumed by the stranger must have refer-"ence to the pecuniary wants of the child, and that "Lord Eldon's definition is to be so understood, and I "so far agree with it; but I think the other circum-"stances required are not necessary to work out the

"principle of the rule or to effectuate its object. The "rule, both as applied to a father and to one in loco "parentis, is founded upon the presumed intention. A "father is supposed to intend to do what he is in duty "bound to do—namely, to provide for his child accord-"ing to his means. So, one who has assumed that part "of the office of a father is supposed to intend to do "what he has assumed to himself the office of doing. "If the assumption of the character be established, the "same inference and presumption must follow. "having so acted towards a child as to raise a moral "obligation to provide for it, affords a strong inference "in favour of the fact of the assumption of the char-"acter; and the child having a father with whom it "resides, and by whom it is maintained, affords some "inference against it; but neither inference is con-"clusive" (e).

(3.) Leaning against double portions.

3. Whereas in the case of satisfaction of a debt by a legacy, equity leans (as we have seen) most strongly against the presumption, the leaning of the court is all the other way in the case of satisfaction of portion by legacy or of legacy by portion. In this latter case the presumption of satisfaction will not be repelled, "by slight circumstances of difference between the advance and the portion," just as the like differences in the case of alleged satisfaction of debt by legacy would not repel, but would (as we have seen) confirm the contrary leaning of the court in that case against satis-And even very material differences do not seem to count. Thus, in the case of Lord Durham v. Wharton (f) a father by will be queathed f, 10,000 to trustees, one half to be paid at the end of three years, and the other half at the end of six years from his death, with interest in the meanwhile, and declared the

⁽e) Cooper v. Cooper, 21 W. R. 501. (f) 3 Cl. & F. 146; but see Tussaud v. Tussaud, 9 Ch. Div. 363.

trusts to be for his daughter for life, and after her decease in trust for her children, as she should appoint by deed or will, and in default of appointment for all her children equally; and subsequently, on the marriage of the daughter, he agreed to give her £15,000, to be paid to the intended husband, he securing by his settlement pin money and a jointure for his wife, and portions for the younger children of the marriage. was held that the £10,000 legacy was satisfied by the £15,000 portion. It is to be observed how strong this decision was. By the will, the daughter took a life interest; by the settlement, a jointure. By the will all the children of the daughter took; by the settlement, portions were provided only for the younger children of the particular marriage.

And the same principles will be applied not only Same principles applicable where, as in the above case, the will precedes the when settlesettlement, but where the order of events is, first, a ment comes before will. settlement, secondly, a will. This was decided in the case of Thynne v. Glengall (g). There a father having, upon the marriage of his daughter, agreed to give her a portion of £,100,000 consols, made an actual transfer of one-third thereof to the four trustees of the marriage settlement, and gave them his bond for the transfer of the remainder in like stock upon his death; the stock to be held by them in trust for the daughter's separate use for life, and after her death for the children of the marriage, as the husband and she should jointly appoint. The father afterwards by his will gave to two of the trustees a moiety of the residue of his personal estate in trust for the daughter's separate use for life, remainder for her children generally as she should by deed or will appoint. And it was held that the

⁽g) 2 H. L. Cas. 131; see also Russell v. St. Aubyn, L. R. 2 Ch. Div. 398; Mayd v. Field, L. R. 3 Ch. Div. 587; Bethell v. Abraham, L. R. 3 Ch. Div. 590, 591 n.

moiety of the residue given by the will was a satisfaction of the sum of stock not yet actually transferred,

of satisfaction of a debt.

being the portion thereof secured by the bond, and this notwithstanding the differences of the trusts. reference to this subject, the following remarks were made in the House of Lords:-"We must throw out Not a question of consideration all the cases in which questions have arisen as to legacies being or not being held to be in satisfaction of a debt; for, however similar the two cases may appear at first sight, the rules of equity, as applicable to each, are absolutely opposed the one to the other. Equity leans against legacies being taken in satisfaction of a debt, but leans in favour of a provision made by will being in satisfaction of a portion by contract, feeling the great improbability of a parent intending a double portion for one child, to the prejudice generally, as in the present case, of other children. the case of a debt, therefore, small circumstances of difference between the debt and legacy are held to negative any presumption of satisfaction; whereas, in the case of portions, small circumstances are disregarded. So in the case of a debt, a smaller legacy is not held to be in satisfaction of part of a larger debt; but in the case of portions, it is held to be a satisfaction pro tanto. In the case of a debt, a gift of the whole or part of the residue cannot be a satisfaction, because it is said, the amount being uncertain, it may prove to be less than the debt. In considering whether this rule applies to portions, which is the only question in this case, the reason of the rule as applicable to debts must not be lost sight of, because as a portion may be satisfied pro tanto by a smaller legacy, the reason given for the rule as applicable to debts cannot And, on the contrary, as the residue apply to portions. must be supposed by the testator to have been of some value, it would appear on principle that it ought to be considered as a satisfaction either altogether, or pro tanto, according to the amount. For why should £ 1000,

given as a residue, not have the same effect upon a larger portion as £ 1000 given as a money legacy."

It will be seen that there is no objection in prin- Where settleciple to the application of this doctrine where the will first, persons precedes the settlement, and the trusts are dissimilar; taking under it are quasiyet in the case where the settlement comes first, a purchasers, with right to difficulty necessarily arises. For, in this latter case, elect between the persons entitled under the settlement are quasi- the settlement and the will. purchasers, and as such cannot be deprived against their will of their rights upon any presumed intention of the testator. At the utmost they can only be put to election whether to take under the will or under the settlement, and the presumption against double portions will be much more easily rebutted than where the will precedes the settlement. The distinction is thus stated by Lord Cranworth, in his judgment in Chichester v. Coventry (h),--" When the will precedes the settlement, it is only necessary to read the settlement as if the person making the provision had said, 'I mean this to be in lieu of what I have given by my will.' But if the settlement precedes the will, the testator must be understood as saying, 'I give this in lieu of what I am already bound to give, if those to whom I am so bound will accept it.' It requires much less to rebut the latter than the former presumption." And, in fact, in the before-stated case of Thynne v. Glengall,—the settlement in that case having preceded the will,—an inquiry was directed whether it was for the benefit of the daughter and her children to take under the will or under the settlement, and she was to elect accordingly.

It is also to be observed that in Thynne v. Glengall, the question of satisfaction arose only regarding the

⁽h) L. R. 2 H. L. 87; but see Bennett v. Houldsworth, L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 671.

untransferred stock; and, in fact, the principle of satisfaction does not apply at all as regards advances actually made upon a settlement or other advancement previously to the will (i), a difference never to be lost sight of between the two cases of will first and settlement afterwards, and settlement first and will afterwards.

Sum given by second instrument, if less, satisfaction pro tanto.

It was for some time an unsettled point as to whether, if the sum given by a second instrument was smaller than that given by the first, the less sum operated as a total satisfaction of the larger. question can of course be of practical value only where the will precedes the settlement; for where the order is reversed, and the settlement comes first, the rights of those taking under a positive contract such as a settlement is, cannot be affected or modified by subsequent voluntary gifts. It was for a long time considered that the settlement of a smaller portion effected a complete ademption of a larger legacy given by a previous will. But it was left to Lord Cottenham in the case of Pym v. Lockyer (j), to establish the true and logical rule that an advancement subsequent to a will, if less in amount than the sum given by the will, was to be considered a satisfaction pro tanto only.

Legacy to a child to whom father is indebted. Where a parent gives a legacy to a child to whom he is already *indebted*, the case stands on the same footing as a legacy by any other person in satisfaction of a *debt*, not being a portion; hence a subsequent legacy will not, in the absence of intention, express or implied, be considered as a satisfaction of the debt, unless it be either equal to or greater than the debt, in amount, and unless the presumption of satisfaction be not repelled by any of those slight circumstances

⁽i) Watson v. Watson, 33 Beav. 574; Re Peacock's Estate, L. R. 14 Eq. 236; Hatfeild v. Minet, 8 Ch. Div. 136.
(j) 5 My. & Cr. 29.

which will take a bequest of such amount to a stranger out of the general rule (k). And the same rules apply to a legacy to a wife to whom the husband or to a wife is indebted (l).

Where a parent, however, being indebted to his Advancement child, makes in his lifetime an advancement to the child to whom child upon marriage, or upon some other occasion, of he is indebted. a portion equal to or exceeding the debt, it will primâ facie be considered a satisfaction; and it is immaterial whether the portion be given in consideration of natural love or affection, or whether in the case of a portion to a daughter, the husband be ignorant of the Thus, in Wood v. Briant (m) a father administrator durante minore ætate of his daughter, who was executrix and residuary legatee of her grandmother's estate, agreed when she married with the plaintiff that she should have £800, which in the settlement was called her portion. Lord Hardwicke refused to decree an account of the grandmother's personal estate, as she had been dead twenty years; but directed that the father's representatives should account for his personal estate as to the £800 only, and interest at four per cent. from the marriage (n). Lord Hardwicke said, "There are very few cases where a father will not be presumed to have paid the debt he owes to his daughter, when in his lifetime, he gives her in marriage a greater sum than he owed her, for it is very unnatural to suppose that he would choose to leave himself a debtor to her, and subject to an account."

As to "extrinsic evidence."—The rule against double Extrinsic evidence,—portions is a presumption of law, and like other pre-question of its

⁽k) Stocken v. Stocken, 4 Sim. 152.

⁽i) Fowler v. Fowler, 3 P. Wms. 353; Cole v. Willard, 25 Beav. 568. (m) 2 Atk. 521.

⁽n) Hayes v. Garvey, 2 J. & L. temp. Sugd. 268; Plunkett v. Lewis, 3 Hare, 316.

admissibility or nonadmissibility.

contradict the plain effect of document, where there is no presumption of law contrary to that effect,extrinsic evidence is not admissible,— Hall v. Hill.

sumptions of law may be rebutted by evidence of extrinsic circumstances. i.e., evidence of facts not contained in the written instrument itself. The rules on this subject may be gathered from the cases of Hall v. (1.) To vary or Hill (0) and Kirk v. Eddowes (p). In Hall v. Hill the facts were as follows: the testator, on the marriage of his daughter, intended to provide a sum of £800 as her portion, and gave a bond for the sum to the husband, payable by instalments, part thereof to be paid during his life, and the residue upon his decease, and afterwards by his will bequeathed to his daughter a legacy of £800. Parol evidence was tendered on the part of the defendants to show what was the real intention of the testator. The question was,—whether the parol evidence was admissible. The Lord Chancellor said,—"There is no doubt of the general rule "that when by presumption you come to a construction "against the apparent intention of the instrument, that "may be rebutted by parol evidence. What am I to do "in the present case? Here the debt was first in-"curred, and then comes the will. The legacy to the "daughter by that will could not, by the general rules "of the court, be held to be a satisfaction of the debt. "The will gives a legacy simply. The law says that "this legacy is not in satisfaction of the previous debt. "I am asked now to insert in the will a declaration by "the testator which I do not find in it namely, that he "means the legacy to be a satisfaction of the debt. "I am of opinion I can do no such thing."

In Kirk v. Eddowes (q), a father bequeathed 2.) To confirm the plain effect £3000 for the separate use of his daughter for of the document, where life, with ulterior trusts for her children. there is a presumption of quently he gave the daughter and her husband a law contrary promissory-note for £500. The defendants alleged to that effect. -extrinsic the £500 to have been intended as a satisfaction pro

tanto of the legacy of £3000, and tendered parol evidence is evidence consisting of the declarations of the testator admissible, at the time of handing over the note, that it was to be Eddowes. in part satisfaction of the legacy of £3000. question was, — Whether these contemporaneous declarations were to be admitted, it being observed that in this case the law did raise a presumption of partial satisfaction. Wigram, V.-C., held that this evidence was admissible, and on the following grounds: —"If a second instrument do not in terms adeem the "first, but the case is of that class in which, from the "relation between the author of the instrument and the "party claiming under it (as in the actual or assumed "relation of parent and child), or on other grounds, "the law raises a presumption that the second instru-"ment was an ademption of the gift by the instrument "of earlier date, evidence may be gone into, to show "that such presumption is not in accordance with the "intention of the author of the gift; and where evidence " is admissible for that purpose, counter-evidence is also "admissible. In such cases, the evidence is NOT ad-"mitted on either side for the purpose of proving in "the first instance with what intent either writing was "made, but for the purpose only of ascertaining whether "the PRESUMPTION which the law has raised be well or "ill founded. . . . The evidence does not touch the "will, it proves only that a given transaction took "place after the will was made, and proves what that "transaction was, and calls upon the court to decide "whether the legacy given by the will is not thereby "adeemed. Ademption of the legacy, and not revocation " of the will, is the consequence for which the defendant " contends " (r).

⁽r) See further, upon the admissibility of extrinsic evidence, Wigram's Extrinsic Evidence in Interpretation of Wills, 4th edit., 1858.

CHAPTER XIV.

ADMINISTRATION OF ASSETS.

Administration. Where a testator possessed of property of various kinds dies indebted, having disposed of his estate among different persons, it often becomes material to consider the order and sometimes the proportions and mode in which the several classes of property are applicable to the liquidation of his debts. Every description of property, whether it be real or whether it be personal estate, is now liable for the payment of debts; but for various reasons, some of them historical, and others of them merely natural, certain species of property are liable before others. When regarded in its relation to this general liability to debts, property is called assets, and assets again have been distinguished as legal and as equitable assets.

 Legal assets. Legal assets was the name used to denote such portions of the property of a deceased person as were available at common law for the payment of his debts.

2. Equitable assets.

Where, however, the assets were such as were available only in a court of equity, they were termed equitable assets. But it should be observed that property was not equitable assets, merely because it was an object of equitable jurisdiction. The true principle was thus laid down by V.-C. Kindersley, in Cook v. Gregson (a), "The general proposition is clear enough,

 ⁽a) 3 Drew. 549; and see Hilliard v. Fulford, L. R. 4 Ch. Div. 389;
 Job v. Job, L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 562.

that when assets may be made available in a court of law, they are legal assets; and when they can only be made available through a court of equity, they are equitable assets. This proposition, however, does not refer to the question whether the assets can be recovered by the executor in a court of law, or in a court of equity. The distinction refers to the remedies of the creditor, and Distinction not to the nature of the property. The question is referred to the not, whether the testator's interest was in se legal or remedies. equitable, but whether a creditor of the testator, seeking to get paid out of such assets, can obtain payment thereout from a court of law, or can only obtain it through a court of equity. This, I apprehend, is the true distinction. If a creditor brings an action at law against the executor, and the executor pleads plenè Legal assets administravit, the truth of the plea must be tried by were those recoverable by ascertaining what assets the executor has received, and the executor rirtute officii, whatever assets the court of law, in trying that question, and with would charge the executor with, must be regarded as therefore legal assets. . . . I think the general principle is, that chargeable in an action at a court of law would treat as assets every item of pro-law by a perty come to the hands of the executor, which he has recovered, or had a right to recover, merely virtute officii, i.e., which he would have had a right to recover, if the testator had merely appointed him executor, without saying anything about his property or the application thereof."

The distinction between legal and equitable assets Legal and was formerly much more important than it is now, that equitable assets, -imimportance consisting in this, viz., that out of legal portance of assets, debts of different degrees, as being either specialty between, for or simple contract debts, were payable in certain defined merly and at present. priorities, in a due course of administration, that is to say, the specialty before the simple contract debts; but out of equitable assets, these two different degrees of debts were payable pari passu without any priority the one over the other. And this appears to be all that was meant when it was (inaccurately) stated that

out of equitable assets all debts were payable pari passu. Where the court had to deal with a mixed fund of legal and equitable assets, and specialty creditors by virtue of their legal priority had exhausted the legal assets, the court, on the ground that he who seeks equity must do equity, would marshal the equitable assets in favour of the simple contract creditors by paying thereout the debts of the latter up to an equality with the specialty creditors, before proceeding to a pari passu distribution of the residue of the equitable assets (b). However, the distinction has recently lost much of its importance, an Act having been passed in 1869 to abolish the priority of specialty over simple contract debts (c), in the administration of the legal assets of deceased persons whose deaths shall have happened on or after the 1st January 1870. under the Supreme Court of Judicature Act, 1875 (hereinafter mentioned), a still greater equality in the payment of debts has been introduced in the case of people dying insolvent on or after the 1st November 1875.

The order of priority in the payment of debts,-out of legal assets, as before 32 & 33 Vict., c. 46.

In cases, however, which do not fall within the Act of 1860, that is to say, in the case of persons dying before the 1st January 1870, the following was the regards deaths order in which the different species of debts were payable out of legal assets:-

- I. Debts due to the Crown by record or specialty (d).
- 2. Debts to which particular statutes give priority (e). e.q., income tax (f), poor rates (g).

⁽b) Plunket v. Penson, 2 Atk. 290; Bain v. Sadler, L. R. 12 Eq. 570; and see Ashley v. Ashley, L. R. I Ch. Div. 243; 4 Ch. Div. 757.

⁽c) Stat. 32 & 33 Vict., c. 46. (d) 2 Inst. 32. (e) See 17 Geo. II., c. 38, s. 3; 58 Geo. III., c. 73, ss. 1 & 2; 18 & 19 Vict., c. 63, s. 23; 4 & 5 Will. IV., c. 40, s. 12; and Moors v. Marriott, 7 Ch. Div. 543.
(f) Re W. J. Henley & Co. Limited, 26 W. R. 885.

⁽a) In re Booth, Fisher v. Shirley, W. N. 1879, 108.

- 3. Judgments duly registered (h), and unregistered judgments, if recovered against the personal representatives (i).
 - 4. Recognisances and statutes.
- 5. Debts by specialty contracts, for valuable consideration, whether the heir be, or be not, bound (i), arrears of rent service, even though the rent be reserved by parol, ranking equally with specialties (k).
- 6. Debts by simple contract, unregistered judgments against the deceased only ranking pari passu with debts by simple contract (l).
- 7. Voluntary bonds; but if a voluntary bond had been assigned for value, at any rate in the life of the obligor, it would, in the administration of assets, stand on the same footing as a bond originally given for value, that is to say, in the 5th group of debts (m).

By running together into one and the same group of The order of debts, the debts comprised in the 5th and the 6th of priority in the the above-mentioned groups, you obtain the order in debts, -out of which the different species of debts were always pay-assets and also able out of equitable assets; and in cases where the of 1869) out of recent Act of 1869 lastly before mentioned applies, legal assets. the order last mentioned is also the order in which the different species of debts are now payable out of legal assets, also,—the effect of that Act (wherever it applies) being to abolish in every administration action the distinction between legal and equitable assets (n)

The priority above specified is that which is observed Executor may

⁽h) Stats. 2 & 3 Vict., c. 11; 18 & 19 Vict., c. 15; 23 & 24 Vict., c. 38, ss. 3, 4, 5; 27 & 28 Vict., c. 112, s. 1.
(i) Re Williams, L. R. 15 Eq. 270; In re Stubbs, Hanson v. Stubbs,

⁸ Ch. Div. 154. (j) 9 Co. 88 b. (k) Com. Dig. Admin., v. 2; In re Hastings, Shirreff v. Hastings, L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 610.

⁽¹⁾ Re Turner, 12 W. R. 337; 23 & 24 Vict., c. 38; Kemp v. Waddingham, L. R. 1 Q. B. 355.

⁽m) Ramsden v. Jackson, I Atk. 294; Payne v. Mortimer, 4 De G.

[&]amp; J. 447. (n) Job v. Job, L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 562.

prefer one creditor to another, although of different decree or receiver or injunction.

where the assets are applied in a due course of administration; but there is nothing to prevent an executor, even to the present day, paying one creditor (although degrees,—until of an inferior degree) before any other creditor (although of a superior degree),—at least at any time before decree in an administration action, when no receiver of the estate has been appointed (o). In order to prevent such preferential payment, it is necessary either to obtain the appointment of a receiver in the action before decree, or else to obtain a speedy consent decree for administration (p).

I. Legal assets, -enumeration of.

It is not worth while to enumerate all the varieties of legal assets: but it may be usefully noticed here, that lands not charged with the payment of debts were for the first time made liable at all for the payment of debts generally in 1833, and were made legal assets, although to be administered only in equity, by the statute 3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 104, which extended to deceased non-traders, the remedy given in 1807 by the statute 47 Geo. III., c. 74, against deceased traders. The statute 3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 104, enacts that the real estate of a deceased person, "which he shall not by his last will have charged with, or devised subject to, the payment of his debts, shall be administered in courts of equity, for the payment of the just debts of such person, as well debts due on simple contract, as on specialty." But the Act preserved the rights of creditors by specialty in which the heirs were bound as regarded estates devolving by descent; and the Act also further provided that, in the administration of real estate made liable by the Act, such last mentioned creditors should be paid in full in priority to simple contract creditors and creditors by specialty in which

⁽o) Darston v. Lord Orford, Prec. Ch. 188; In re Radcliffe, 7 Ch. (p) In re Stubbs' Estate, Hanson v. Stubbs, 8 Ch. Div. 154.

the heirs were not bound. But the Act of 1869 (where it applies) has clearly abolished the priority that was preserved by the Act 3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 104, as between at least these different species of creditors themselves. It may also be noticed that estates pur autre vic are likewise legal assets, although the executor may have to go into a court of equity in order to obtain them (q); also, that the equity of redemption of a sum of money charged on land (r) and also of leaseholds, is legal assets in the hands of the executor.

Equitable assets are of two kinds, viz.:—

II. Equitable assets,— varieties of.

- Either (I.) Equitable assets which are so by virtue of their own nature and character. They are not attainable by the executor virtute officii, and are not chargeable against the executor in an action at law by a creditor; or rather they were not so chargeable, prior to the Judicature Acts, 1873-75; but, semble, the executor would now be chargeable with them even at law.
- Or (2.) Equitable assets which are so created by the act of the testator, e.g., by charging or devising his land for the payment of his debts.
- I. Equitable assets, which are so by the nature r. Equitable and character of the property, and which are not assets by nattainable by the executor, virtute officii, consist of the perty itself,—enumeration of.
- (a.) Property over which the testator has exercised (a.) Property a general power of appointment is equitable assets (s). actually appointed in exercise of general power.

⁽q) Christy v. Courtenay, 26 Beav. 140.

⁽r) Cook v. Gregson, 3 Drew. 547; Mutlow v. Mutlow, 4 De G. & J.

^{539;} Wms. on Assets, 6.
(8) Pardo v. Bingham, L. R. 6 Eq. 485.

(b.) Separate estate of married woman.

(b.) The separate estate of a married woman is administered as equitable assets, all her creditors being paid pari passu, because it is only through a court of equity that they can make her separate property available (t). Such property has, in fact (or at least, prior to the Judicature Acts, 1873-75, had, in fact), no existence in the view of a court of common law, -unless so far as regards statutory separate estate.

2. Equitable assets by act of testator. enumeration

2. The second kind of equitable assets is that created by the act of the testator charging or devising his land for the payment of the debts (u).

Charge of debts distinguished from trust.

Besides a great difference in the order of administration (v), to be hereafter noticed, there is an important distinction between an express devise of lands on trust for the payment of debts, and a mere charge of debts upon the lands. When a trust of lands is created, the conscience of the trustee is affected: the creditor is put under his care, and it becomes the special duty of the trustee to look after him; and it has always debts, lapse of been the rule of equity, and under the Judicature Act, 1873, sect. 25, sub-sect. 2, it is now a rule in all the courts, that as between an express trustee and his cestui que trust, no length of time is a bar (w). But if the creditors have merely a charge upon the lands in their favour, they must look after themselves. for otherwise they will be barred after twenty years by the statute of limitations, 3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 27, s. 40 (x). But note, that if a testator bequeath his per-

In a trust for payment of time no bar.

In a charge, creditors may be barred by lapse of time.

(x) Jacquet v. Jacquet, 27 Beav. 332; but see Real Property Limitation Act, 1874 (37 & 38 Vict., c. 57, s. 8), reducing the 20 years to 12.

⁽t) Bruere v. Pemberton, cited as Anon. 18 Ves. 258; Owens v. Dick-(t) Bruere v. Femoerton, civel as Anon. 10 ves. 250; Owens v. Lickenson, Cr. & Ph. 48, 53; Murray v. Barlee, 3 My. & K. 209; In re Poole's Case, Thompson v. Bennett, L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 739.

(u) 3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 104.

(v) Harmood v. Oglander, 8 Ves. 124.

(w) Hughes v. Wynne, Turn. & Russ. 309; Townshend v. Townshend, I Cox. 29, 34; 3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 27, s. 25; 36 & 37 Vict., c. 66,

B. 25, § 2.

sonal estate upon an express trust for the payment of his debts, the statutes of limitation still run against the creditors,—the reason being that such a bequest is in effect inoperative, seeing that the personal estate is, by law, primarily liable to the payment of the debts. and the testator, by professing to create a trust of it for that purpose does nothing, or merely does that which the law has already done (y). But note also, that a trust of personal estate even, for payment of debts, when the trust is created by deed (and not by will), is an effectual express trust, against which length of time is no bar.

In order to prevent the injustice, which, previously what amounts to the late enactment, many times resulted to debts. creditors, in consequence of a testator not having charged his debts upon his real estate, courts of equity, by straining a little the ordinary rules of construction. laid it down as a rule in this class of cases, that a mere general direction by a testator, that his debts A general should be paid, effectually charged them on his real testator for estate: and such rule of construction is still in practice payment of his debts. in the courts, notwithstanding that the original occasion for it has either ceased altogether or been minimised. Thus, in Legh v. Earl of Warrington (z), a testator commenced a will thus:—"As to my worldly estate, which it hath pleased God to bestow upon me, I give and dispose thereof in manner following: (that is to say), Imprimis, I will that all my debts which I shall owe at the time of my decease, be discharged and paid out of my estate;" and he then disposed of his real and personal estate, charging the former with an annuity. It was contended that these were merely introductory words, and did not indicate an intention to charge the real estate generally with the debts.

⁽y) Scott v. Jones, 4 Cl. & Fin. 382; and see 3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 27,

⁽z) I Bro. P. C. Toml. ed. 511.

But the House of Lords, affirming a decree of Lord King, held the real estate to be charged with the And it is not necessary that such expressions as "Imprimis" should be at the beginning of the will. "I do not think," observed Shadwell, V.-C., in Graves v. Graves, (a), "that the charge is made to rest on the mere circumstance that the testator has used the words, 'imprimis,' or 'in the first place,' for if a testator directs his debts to be paid, is it not in effect a direction that his debts shall be paid in the first instance?"

Exceptions.

There are, however, certain exceptions to the general rule, viz.:--

1. Where testator has specified a particular fund for pay-

1st. Where the testator, after a general direction for the payment of his debts, has specified a particular fund for the purpose; "because the general charge by ment of debts. implication is controlled by the specific charge made in the subsequent part of the will "(b).

2. Where executors, not being also devisees, are directed to pay the debts.

2d, Where the debts are directed to be paid by the executors who are not at the same time devisees of the real estate (c); for, in that case, it will be presumed that the debts are to be paid exclusively out of the assets which come to them as executors.

Debts to be paid out of rents and profits.

A direction to raise money for payment of debts out of rents and profits of real estate, will authorise the sale or mortgage of the estate for that purpose (d).

Lien on land

Where a person has a direct lien upon the lands as

⁽a) 8 Sim. 55.
(b) Thomas v. Britnell, 2 Ves. Sr. 313; Price v. North, 1 Ph. 85.
(c) Cook v. Dawson, 3 De G. F. & J. 127; Finch v. Hattersley, 3 Rus. 345 n.

⁽d) Bootle v. Blundell, I Mer. 232; Metcalfe v. Hutchinson, L. R. I Ch. Div. 591; In re Brooke, Brooke v. Rooke, L. R. 3 Ch. Div. 630.

mortgagee or otherwise, his right of priority will not be not affected affected by any such general charge of debts (e).

Neither debts by specialty, in which the heirs are Neither spebound, nor simple contract debts, even since 3 & 4 simple con-Will. IV., c. 104, which made the land of a deceased tract debts are a lien on debtor assets, constitute a lien or charge upon the land the lands. in the hand either of the debtor or of his heir or devisee. The latter may alienate the lands before any proceedings are taken by the creditors to make them liable, and in the hands of the alienee, whether upon an ordinary purchase or upon a settlement, even with notice that there are debts unpaid, the land is not liable, though the heir or devisee remains personally liable to the extent of the value of the land (f).

By the supreme Court of Judicature Act, 1875, it is Administraenacted that, "in the administration by the court of Judicature the assets of any person who may die after the com- $\frac{\text{Act 1875}}{(38 \& 39 \text{ Vict.})}$ mencement of this Act, and whose estate may prove to be c. 77), s. 10. insufficient for the payment in full of his debts and liabilities, the same rules shall prevail and be observed as to the respective rights of secured and unsecured creditors, and as to debts and liabilities provable, and as to the valuation of annuities and future and contingent liabilities, respectively, as may be in force for the time being under the law of Bankruptcy, with respect to the estates of persons adjudged bankrupt."

N.B.—The corresponding sub-section in the Judicature Act, 1873 (viz., s. 25, sub-section 1), never had any operation (q).

In Bankruptcy, a secured creditor may either, -- Rights of se-

⁽e) Child v. Stephens, I Vern. 101, 103. (f) Morley v. Morley, 5 De G. M. & G. 610; Carter v. Saunders, 2 Drew. 248; Kinderley v. Jervis, 22 Beav. I. (g) Sherwen v. Selkirk, W. N. 79, p. 123, disapproving Hilton v.

Jones, 9 Ch. Div. 620.

cured creditors.

(1.) Rest on his security, and compel the trustee to redeem him, or (2.) may realise his security, or apply to have it realised under the direction of the court (h); and in the event of the security proving deficient he can prove for the deficiency only. The former rule in equity was, that the creditor might, in addition to his rights under his security, prove for the whole amount of his debt against the general estate (i).

Secured creditors,who are, and who are not.

A landlord, in respect of his arrears of rent, is not (in the winding up of companies) a secured creditor within the meaning either of the Bankruptcy Act, 1869, or the Judicature Act, 1873 (j); but a judgment creditor who has obtained a garnishee order, is a secured creditor (k); and likewise the holder of a bill of sale, although unregistered (l).

Bankruptcy rules, - how far introduced, in administration of insolvent estates.

N.B.—This 10th section of the Judicature Act, 1875, although apparently intended to apply only to questions between secured and unsecured creditors, has been construed by the courts (not without some difference of opinion) to introduce all the rules of the Bankruptcy Act, 1869, into the administration of estates of deceased insolvents (m); and as in Bankruptcy administration all debts are paid pari passu (excepting the immaterial exceptions therein specified), it follows that in the administration of the estates of persons dying insolvent on or after the 1st November 1875, all debts (including even voluntary bonds) (n)

Steel Co., 7 Ch. Div. 547.

⁽h) Robson on Bankruptcy, 277; In re Suche & Co, L. R. I Ch. Div. 48.

⁽i) Kellock's Case, L. R. 3 Ch. App. 769. (j) In re Coal Consumers' Co., ex parte Hughes, 25 W. R. 300; In re Printing and Numerical Co., 8 Ch. Div. 535.
(k) Ex parte Joselyne, in re Watt, 8 Ch. Div. 327.
(l) In re Knott, 7 Ch. Div. 549 n.

⁽m) In re Printing and Numerical Co., 8 Ch. Div. 535; Moore v. Anglo-Italian Bank, 10 Ch. Div. 681; but see In re Richards & Co., 11 Ch. Div. 676; In re Crumlin Works, 11 ch. Div. 755.

(n) Ex parte Pottinger, in re Stewart, 8 Ch. Div. 621; and see Albion

are now paid pari passu, other than and except Crown debts, to which the Bankruptcy Act, 1869, does not apply (o).

The maxim, "equality is equity," is not extended to Legatees postlegatees jointly with creditors. Thus, although land poned to creditors. may be devised in trust for, or charged with the payment of debts and legacies, the debts will in all cases have precedence of the legacies, on the ground that a man must first do what is just before he attempts what is generous. On the other hand, legatees and devisees, as being express objects of a testator's generosity or bounty are respectively preferred to the next of kin and to the heir-at-law of the testator; and among legatees, residuary legatees are considered the least objects of such express generosity, although it is otherwise with residuary devisees, for these latter rank on the same level as other devisees (p).

From these and such like considerations, the courts order of the have established in the administration of assets, the debts of the following order in the liability to debts of the different properties of properties (but as between such properties themselves testator, as only) belonging to the testator at the time of his properties decease, that is to say,—

themselves only.

- I. The general personal estate, not bequeathed at all or by way of residue only.
 - 2. Real estate devised for the payment of debts.
 - 3. Real estate descended.
- 4. Real estate devised specifically or by way of residue, and being at the same time charged with the payment of debts.
 - 5. General pecuniary legacies, including annuities,

⁽o) Exparte Postmaster-General, in re Bonham, 10 Ch. Div. 595. (p) Walker v. Meager, 2 P. W. 551; Kidney v. Coussmaker, 12 Ves. 154; Hooper v. Smart, L. R. 1 Ch. Div. 90; Roper v. Roper, L. R. 3 Ch. Div. 714.

and including also demonstrative legacies which have become general.

- 6. Specific legacies (including demonstrative legacies that have remained demonstrative) and real estate devised specifically or by way of residue, and not being at the same time charged with debts.
- 7. Personalty or realty subject to a general power of appointment, and which power has been actually exercised by deed (in favour of volunteers) or by will.
 - 8. Paraphernalia of widow.

I. The general personal estate,—primary liability of.

Question, — What exonerates the personalty.

I. The general personal estate, not bequeathed at all, or by way of residue only, and which is in general legal assets, is first liable. But of course the testator may have exonerated it from its primary liability, and such exoneration may be either express or implied. Thus, if the testator has appropriated any specific part of his personal estate for the payment of his debts. and has also disposed of his general residuary personal estate, the part so appropriated will be primarily liable to the payment of the debts in exoneration and exemption, so far, at least, of the general residuary estate. If, however, he has made no disposition of his general residuary personal estate, then, notwithstanding such an appropriation, the general residuary personal estate. thus remaining undisposed of, will still remain subject to its primary liability to pay the debts. quires, in fact, very strong language on the part of the testator to exonerate his general personal estate from its primary liability to the payment of his debts. course, nothing that he can say can deprive his creditors of their legal rights to resort primarily to his personal estate; but as between the several persons to whom his property may be bequeathed or devised, who therefore take as volunteers under him, he may, if he pleases, vary the priorities; but to do this he must show an intention not only to charge his real estate with his debts, but also to exonerate his personal estate

therefrom. Thus neither a general charge of the debts Answer,upon the real estate, nor an express trust created by There must be both a disthe testator for the payment of his debts out of his charge of the personalty and real estate, or any part thereof (q), will be sufficient to a charge of the exonerate the personal estate from its primary liability realty. to pay them. Nor will it alter the case that the charge or trust for payment out of the real estate comprises also the testator's funeral and testamentary expenses (r), though this circumstance is not without its weight, if there be in the will other indications of an intention to exonerate the personalty. If, therefore, the personal estate be simply given to some legatee, and more particularly if the articles given be specifically mentioned, the indication thus afforded of the testator's wish that the personalty shall come clear to the legatee, will, if coupled with an express trust for payment of the funeral and testamentary expenses out of the real estate, be sufficient to exonerate the personalty (s). But if the personalty be simply given to the executor, or if the gift be merely of the residue of the personal estate, the personal estate will not be exempt (t). In short, an intention must appear to give the personal estate as a specific legacy to the legatee: and if this be the case, it will be exempt, and will be removed to that distant rank in point of liability in which all specific devises and bequests are held to stand (u).

By Locke King's Act (v), the rule, that the person-Exoneration alty of a testator is the primary fund for the payment of general personal estate of his debts, was broken in upon, with respect to mort-from mortgage gages of land. This Act enacts, that "when any person By 17&18 Vict. shall, after the passing of the Act, die, seised of, or King's Act),

⁽q) Tower v. Rous, 18 Ves. 132; Collis v. Robins, I De G. & Sm. 131.

⁽r) Brydges v. Phillips, 6 Ves. 570.
(s) Greene v. Greene, 4 Mad. 148; Lance v. Aglionby, 27 Beav. 65.
(t) Aldridge v. Wallscourt, 1 Ball. & B. 312.

⁽u) Wms. on Assets, 181.

⁽v) 17 & 18 Vict., c. 113.

mortgaged estate primarily liable.

entitled to, any estate or interest in any land or other hereditaments, which shall, at the time of his death, be charged with the payment of any sum or sums of money by way of mortgage, and such person shall not by his will, or deed, or other document, have signified any contrary or other intention, the heir or devisee to whom such lands or hereditaments shall descend or be devised, shall not be entitled to have the mortgage debt discharged or satisfied out of the personal estate, or any other real estate of such person; but the lands or hereditaments so charged shall, as between the different persons claiming (w) through or under the deceased person, be primarily liable to the payment of all mortgage debts with which the same shall be charged. every part thereof, according to its value, bearing a proportionate part of the mortgage debts charged on the whole thereof." The Act is not, of course, to prejudice the mortgagee's right to payment out of the personal estate; but the Act, unless excluded, applies to every person claiming under a will, deed, or document, dated on or after the 1st of January 1855.

It is proposed briefly to consider-

- I. The law applicable to cases not within the statute.
- II. The effect and construction of the statute.
 - I. The law applicable to cases not within the statute.

a. Personalty primarily liable, unless mortgaged estate devised cum onere, or personalty exonerated.

(a.) The heir and also the devisee are primâ facie entitled to have the descended and devised realty exonerated from the mortgage debt, and to have that debt paid out of the personal estate. If, therefore, the debt has been contracted by the deceased person himself, the personalty is the primary fund for its payment, the reason being that the personal estate was swelled

by the mortgage money at the expense of the realty just as much as the realty is now to be swelled at the expense of the personalty. What went into the deceased's personal pocket should also come out of Of course, however, even under the old law. the mortgaged estate may have been devised cum onere. or the personal estate may have been exempted by express words, or by necessary implication (x), in either of which cases the mortgaged lands would have borne the burden of the mortgage debt.

(b.) If the mortgage debt was not the personal debt b. Mortgaged of the deceased devisor or ancestor, but the debt of a mary fund, previous owner of the mortgaged estate, in other words, when mortgage is an if the mortgage debt is an ancestral mortgage, the ancestral debt. mortgaged estate is the primary, and the personalty is only the collateral, fund for its payment; consequently the devisee, or heir-at-law, as the case may be, will, as Unless it be a general rule, take the devised or descended estate personal debt, with the burden of the ancestral mortgage on it, and will not be entitled to call upon the personal estate for exoneration. But, if the ancestor or devisor has adopted the debt as his own personal debt, the ordinary rule applies (y), and the mortgaged estate is in that case entitled to complete exoneration at the

As to what acts do or do not amount to an adoption of the mortgage debt by the owner of the estate, so as to make the personalty primarily liable to discharge it, the reader is referred to the cases cited below (z).

expense of the personal estate.

⁽x) Davies v. Bush, 4 Bligh, N. S. 305; Townshend v. Mostyn, 26 Beav. 72, 76; Newhouse v. Smith, 2 Sm. & Giff. 344.

⁽y) Scott v. Beecher, 5 Mad. 96. (z) Evelyn v. Evelyn, 2 P. Wms. 659; Hedges v. Hedges, 5 De G. & Sm. 330; Bagot v. Bagot, 13 W. R. 169; Sweinson v. Swainson, 6 De G. M. & G. 648; Bond v. England, 2 K. & J. 44; Loosemore v. Knapman, Kay, 123.

II. The effect and construction of the statute.

Copyholds and freeholds are within the statute; quære as to leaseholds.

 (α) It seems that copyholds as well as freeholds are within its provisions; but it was thought doubtful whether leaseholds were so, for the words of the Act are, "The heir or devisee to whom such lands or hereditaments shall descend or be devised" (a)—and these words were inapplicable to leasehold hereditaments. Eventually it was decided that the Act did not apply to leasehold hereditaments (b), and accordingly an amending Act (c) has been passed for the purpose of bringing leaseholds within it. The amending Act Leaseholds are applies to any testator or intestate dying after the amending Act, 31st December 1877 seised or possessed of or entitled

included in 1877.

to any lands or other hereditaments of whatever tenure which shall at the time of his death be charged with any mortgage or equitable charge or with any lien for unpaid purchase-money; and the devisee or legatee or heir shall not be entitled to have such sum discharged out of any other estate of the testator or intestate unless in the case of a testator he shall have signified a contrary intention.

Act refers only to specified charges.

(b.) The words "sums by way of mortgage," occurring in the principal Act, have been held to apply only to a defined or specified charge on a specified estate (d). The principal Act was held to be applicable also to an equitable mortgage of freeholds by deposit of title-deeds and memorandum (e). But it was held that the Act did not apply to a vendor's lien for unpaid purchasemoney (f), consequently an amending Act, 30 & 31

Vendor's lien under 30 & 31 Vict., c. 69,

> (a) Piper v. Piper, 1 J. & H. 91. (b) Solomon v. Solomon, 33 L. J. Ch. 473; In re Wormsley's Estate, Hill v. Wormsley, L. R. 4 Ch. Div. 665.
> (c) 40 & 41 Vict., c. 34.
> (d) Hepworth v. Hill, 30 Beav. 476.

⁽e) Pembrooke v. Friend, 1 J. & H. 132. (f) Hood v. Hood, 5 W. R. 747; Barnwell v. Iremonger, 1 Dr. & Sm. 255, 260.

Vict., c. 69, s. 2, was passed, whereby it is enacted and under that the word "mortgage" in the principal Act shall 40 & 41 Vict., be deemed to extend to any lien for unpaid purchasemoney, on any lands or hereditaments purchased by a testator. The case of a purchaser who dies intestate (by what appears to be a curious oversight) is not, quoad this matter of lien, within the amending Act (q); but under the further Amendment Act of 1877, partly stated above, this omission is provided for.

N.B.—Under the operation of Locke King's Act, Rateable incidence of and the two several Acts amending same, as above mortgage, in stated, where a mortgage is made of a mixed fund of case of mixed security. real and personal property, the incidence of the liability is upon both the real and the personal property equally, and is pro ratâ, neither being exempt in favour of the other (h).

(c.) What is a "contrary or other intention" within "Contrary or the meaning of the principal Act? The cases on this other inten-subject have been somewhat conflicting; but the cur-cipal Act,—not what Camprent of authority seems to be against the rule laid bell, L. C., down by Lord Campbell, in Woolstencroft v. Woolsten-thought. croft (i) as follows:—"I think the same rule should now be observed with respect to exempting the mortgaged land from the payment of the mortgage money, as was before observed, with respect to exempting the personal estate, the mortgaged land being now primarily liable."—that is to say, there must be both a discharge of the real estate and a charge of the personal estate. However, in Eno v. Tatham (j), Turner, L. J., said, The true rule "The appellant's counsel has relied on the dictum of in Eno v. Tatham,—it is Lord Campbell in Woolstencroft v. Woolstencroft, that sufficient to

⁽g) Harding v. Harding, L. R. 13 Eq. 493.
(h) Trestrail v. Mason, 7 Ch. Div. 655; and see Leonino v. Leonino, 10 Ch. Div. 460; Early v. Early, W. N. 1878, p. 204.
(i) 2 De G. F. & Jo. 347.

⁽i) 11 W. R. 475; and see Gall v. Fenwick, 43 L. J. Ch. 179.

charge the personal, without at the same time discharging the real, estate. the rule which had been before observed with respect to exempting personal estate should now be observed with respect to exempting the mortgaged land from This probably the payment of the mortgage money. meant no more than that the intention should be clearly proved. If Lord Campbell intended to say that as before the Act it had been necessary to show an intention not only to charge the mortgaged estate, but also to discharge the personalty, so now it is necessary to show an intention, not only that another fund should be charged, but also that the mortgaged estate should be discharged, he (the Lord Justice) was not prepared to follow him. In order to take a case out of the Act, it was sufficient to show a contrary or other intention; this destroyed the analogy between the two cases. In the one case, the intention to be proved was contrary to a settled rule of the common law (meaning thereby, the principles of equity apart from statute); in the other case, it was contrary only to a statutory rule, expressly made dependent upon intention. . . . His opinion coincided with those cases in which it had been held that the mortgaged estates were not liable where there was a direction that the debt should be paid out of some other fund."

But not a mere general direction for payment of debts. It has been decided that a mere general direction by the testator that the debts "shall be paid as soon as may be" (k), or that debts should be paid by "his executors out of his estate" (l), the source from which payment is to be made not being mentioned, will not show a contrary or other intention sufficient to exonerate the mortgaged estate from its primary liability. Where, however, the personal estate is

⁽k) Pembrooke v. Friend, 1 J. & H. 132; Coote v. Lowndes, L. R. 10
Eq. 376.
(l) Woolstencroft v. Woolstencroft, 2 De G. F. & Jo. 347.

bequeathed on trust to pay (m), or subject to the payment of, debts (n), these words have been held sufficient to show a contrary intention within the meaning of the Act so as to charge the personalty primarily with the payment of the mortgaged debts on estates devised by the will.

But now by 30 & 31 Vict., c. 69, an Act to explain Under 30 & 31 the Act of 17 & 18 Vict., c. 113, in the construction the intention of the will of any person, who may die after the 31st to charge the personalty day of December 1867, a general direction that the with the mortdebts or all the debts of the testator shall be paid out must be exof his personal estate, shall not be deemed to be a pressed or necessarily declaration of an intention contrary to or other than implied. the rule established by the last-mentioned Act, unless such contrary or other intention shall be further declared by words expressly or by necessary implication referring to all or some of the testator's debts or debt charged by way of mortgage on any part of his real estate (o).

- 2. Lands devised to pay debts, and not merely 2. Lands exdevised charged with debts, are liable next after the personalty (p). These are equitable assets, and are debts, equitable assets. therefore applicable in payment of debts by specialty and simple contract pari passu.
- 3. Real estates which have descended to the heir, 3. Realty debut not charged with debts, are next liable (q). These assets. are legal assets liable to debts by specialty binding the heir, but not before 47 Geo. III., c. 74, and 3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 104, to debts by a simple contract.

(n) Mellish v. Vallins, 2 J. & H. 194.

(o) In re Newmarch, Newmarch v. Storr, 9 Ch. Div. 12.

(q) Davies v. Topp, 1 Bro. C. C. 527; Manning v. Spooner, 3 Ves. 17; Milnes v. Slater, 8 Ves. 304; Wood v. Ordish, 3 Sm. & Giff. 125.

⁽m) Moore v. Moore, I De G. Jo. & Sm. 602.

⁽p) Harmood v. Oglander, 8 Ves. 125; Phillips v. Parry, 22 Beav.

Devise to heir makes him a purchaser.

Since the Act for the amendment of the law of inheritance (r), when land is devised to the heir, he takes not as heir but as purchaser, and as such is placed in the same position in all respects as any other devisee of lands (s), that is to say, in the 6th (and not in the 3rd) line in the order of liability stated on p. 27 I, suprα.

4. Realty devised charged with debts, equitable assets.

4. Real estates devised, specifically or by way of residue, and being at the same time charged with the payment of debts, are next liable, and, of course, pro ratâ (t). These are equitable assets, and debts are payable out of them pari passu.

Heir taking a lapsed devise.

If the heir takes by reason of a lapse or other failure, land devised charged with debts, the land so charged is applicable for payment of debts in the same order as devised estates, and not till after the real estates, which had descended (u), that is to say, it remains where it would have stood if it had not failed but taken effect, i.e., in the 4th (and not in the 3rd) line in the order of liability.

A residuary devise is specific.

After the passing of the Wills Act, the question arose whether a residuary devise was still to be deemed specific, at least for the purposes of settling the order of liability in the administration of the assets of a deceased person. This question was answered in the affirmative in the case of Hensman v. Fryer (v), decided

⁽r) 3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 106. (s) Biederman v. Seymour, 3 Beav. 368; Strickland v. Strickland, 10 Sim. 374.

⁽t) Barnewell v. Lord Cawdor, 3 Mad. 453; Irvin v. Ironmonger, 2 Russ. & My. 531.

⁽u) Wood v. Ordish, 3 Sim. & Giff. 125; Stead v. Hardaker, L. R. 15 Eq. 175. And see (as to lapsed personal estate), Trethewy v. Helyar,
L. R. 4 Ch. Div. 53; Fenton v. Wills, L. R. 7 Ch. Div. 33. See also In re Jones, Jones v. Caless, 10 Ch. Div. 40.

⁽v) L. R. 3 Ch. App. 420; Gibbins v. Eyden, L. R. 7 Eq. 371; 2 Jarm. on Wills, 589; but see Lancefield v. Iggulden, 22 W. R. 726.

on appeal by Lord Chelmsford; and as Lord Chelmsford's decision, upon this point, has been since (after much professional and judicial conflict of opinion regarding it) approved and confirmed by Lord Cairns in the recent case of Lancefield v. Iggulden (w), the specific character of the residuary devise is now concluded by authority, and reason must assent to the decision.

- 5. General pecuniary legacies are next liable, and 5. General of course pro $rat\hat{a}(x)$. legacies.
- 6. Specific legacies (y) and real estates devised 6. Specific legacies and specifically, or by way of residue and not being at the devises pro same time charged with the payment of debts (z), are next liable, and of course pro ratâ, to contribute to the payment of debts by specialty, in which the heirs are bound (a), and also (it is conceived) to the payment of debts by simple contract and by specialty in which the heirs are not bound (b).

In the above-mentioned case of $Hensman\ v.\ Fryer, Hensman\ v.\ Fryer, -ex-$ Lord Chelmsford, after deciding that a residuary devise plained. was still specific, further held (but apparently only to do particular justice in the particular circumstances of that case), that pecuniary legatees were entitled to call on residuary devisees to contribute rateably to the payment of debts, which the general personal estate was insufficient to satisfy. But this part of that decision which appeared to overrule a long series of authorities, decided, as well by courts of appeal, as by courts of

⁽w) L. R. to Ch. App. 136.

⁽x) Clifton v. Burt, I P. W. 680; Headley v. Readhead, Coop. 50.
(y) Fielding v. Preston, I De G. & Jo. 438; Evans v. Wyatt, 31 Beav. 217.

⁽²⁾ Mirehouse v. Scaife, 2 My. & Cr. 695; Milnes v. Flater, 8 Ves. 303. (a) Tombs v. Roch, 2 Coll. 490; Gervis v. Gervis, 14 Sim. 655. (b) Collis v. Robins, 1 De G. & Sm. 131.

first instance (c), has not been followed (d), and is not to be considered as laying down any general rule upon the subject; on the contrary, in Lancefield v. Iggulden, supra, Lord Cairns applied the general rule, and ranked (as it was only consistent to rank) residuary devises among specific devises for all the purposes of administration, that is to say, in the 4th line of liability if charged with the payment of debts, and in the 6th line of liability if not so charged, keeping company in each case with lands specifically devised.

- Property over which testator has exercised a general power of appointment.
- 7. Real or personal property over which the testator has a general power of appointment, if and so far as he has actually exercised that power (e), whether by deed in favour of volunteers, or by will, is next applicable. In this case the property appointed will in equity form part of the appointor's assets, so as to be subject to the demands of his creditors in preference to the claims of his legatees or appointees (f).
- 8. The paraphernalia of the testator's widow occupies the last line in the order of liability, she being preferred to all legatees and devisees, and ranking, in fact, in the order of preference, next after the creditors of the deceased,—and that for the reason that her paraphernalia, although liable to her husband's debts, cannot be disposed away from her by his will alone.

he testator's intention is the guide. The results of the chapter may be thus summed up in the words of a learned writer. "The order in which we have seen that the various portions of a testator's estate are applied for the payment of his debts, has

⁽c) 2 W. & T. 98; Clifton v. Burt, I P. Wms. 678; Fielding v. Preston, I De G. & Jo. 438.

⁽d) Collins v. Lewis, L. R. 8 Eq. 708; Dugdale v. Dugdale, L. R. 14 Eq. 235; and see Tomkins v. Colthurst, L. R. 1 Ch. Div. 626; Farquharson v. Flouer, L. R. 3 Ch. Div. 109.

Eq. 255, and see 2 of the see 25 of the see

⁽f) Holmes v. Coghill, 7 Ves. 499, 12 Ves. 206; Vaughan v. Vander-stegen, 2 Drew. 165.

been established out of a regard to the testator's intention. The general personal estate was long the only fund to which those creditors who had not specialties Reasons why binding the heir could resort; and besides, cash, stock, primarily and movables come first to hand, and are the most liable. readily applicable, and are the funds out of which people in their lifetime usually pay their debts. Next after the general personal estates, any special fund set apart by the testator would naturally come. The heir not being a beneficiary within the testator's intention, lands descended to him would properly follow next in the order of application. But lands charged with the payment of debts would, of course, be applicable before legacies bequeathed, or property specifically given and not so charged. Again, there seems a more direct Intention to intention to benefit a specific devisee or legatee than more clearly to benefit a mere pecuniary legatee. Pecuniary legacies in a specific than in a genemust therefore go unpaid rather than specific devises ral legacy. or bequests be touched. These, however, must be resorted to for the payment of debts as a last resource, whilst lands over which the testator has exercised a general power of appointment are, in favour of creditors, considered as supplementarily applicable after the whole of the testator's own property has been exhausted "(g). And (it may be added) the paraphernalia come last of all. If from these various sources there is not enough to pay and satisfy all the debts, then the creditors are compelled to abate among themselves pro ratâ, and in a manner, therefore, to prey and feed upon each other for their own satisfaction pro tanto. But any creditor, Retainer by who is at the same time executor of the deceased, may executor. retain to himself his own debt in full (h), at least out of the legal assets, and as against other creditors in equal degree, but subject to certain restrictions (i).

(i) Ibid.

⁽g) Wms. Real Assets, 108, (h) 2 Wms. Executors, 971 (6th ed.); Richmond v. White, 10 Ch. Div. 727, reversed, W. N. 1879, 150; Talbot v. Frere, 9 Ch. Div. 568.

CHAPTER XV.

MARSHALLING ASSETS.

The general principle of marshalling explained.

IT must not be forgotten, that the order (stated and expounded in the preceding chapter) in which the several funds liable to the payment of debts are to be applied, regulates the administration of the assets only as between or among the testator's own representatives, devisees, and legatees, and does not affect the right of the creditors themselves to resort, in the first instance. to all or any of the funds to which their claims extend. It might have happened, therefore, in times preceding the Act, 3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 104, although it can hardly (if at all) happen now, that a creditor having a right to proceed against two or more funds proceeded against some fund which was the only resource of some other creditor, less amply provided for than himself. would in such a case have held that the creditor having two funds should not, by resorting to the fund which was the only resource of another creditor, disappoint that other; but would have permitted the latter to stand, to the extent of his disappointment, in the place of the more favoured creditor, against the other fund, to which the less favoured creditor had no direct access. the object of the court in so doing being, that all creditors should be satisfied, so far as, by any arrangement consistent with the nature of their several claims, the property which they ought to affect could be applied in satisfaction of such claims (a).

⁽a) Aldrich v. Cooper, 2 L. C. 80.

It is proposed to examine the cases in which equity Two varieties carries out this or an analogous principle—and here-of marshalling. under:---

Firstly, Marshalling as between creditors; and, Secondly, Marshalling as between the beneficiaries entitled under the will

Firstly, under the old law, before 3 & 4 Will. IV., 1. As between c. 104, simple contract creditors had, as we have seen, Under old law, no claim upon the real assets of a deceased person, simple conunless these assets were charged with, or were devised permitted to stand in shoes for the payment of, debts. In the absence of such of specialty charge or devise, specialty creditors, who might in the against the first instance resort to the personal estate, in priority to realty. simple contract creditors, and also to the real assets, in exclusion of simple contract creditors, would be compelled in equity to resort for the satisfaction of their debts, in the first place, to the real assets, as far as they went, so as to leave the personalty for the simple contract creditors; or if the specialty creditors had already exhausted the personal assets in payment of their claims. the simple contract creditors would be put to stand in their place against the real assets, whether devised or descended, as far as the specialty creditors might have exhausted the personal assets.

In Aldrich v. Cooper (b), decided before 3 & 4 Will. Marshalling IV., c. 104, a mortgagee of freehold and copyhold mortgagee estates, who was also a specialty creditor, having ex-who exhausts or diminishes hausted the personal assets, simple contract creditors the personwere held entitled to stand in his place, against both the freehold and the copyhold estates, so far as the personal estate was taken away from them by such specialty creditor. And in Selby v. Selby (c), it was decided that Also, against

⁽b) 2 L. C. 80.

an unpaid vendor, who does the like. if the vendor of an estate, the contract for which was not completed in the lifetime of the testator who was the purchaser, is afterwards paid his purchase-money out of the personal assets, the simple contract creditors of the testator shall stand in the place of the vendor, to the extent of his lien on the estate sold, as against the devisee of that estate.

Realty now assets for payment of all debts, 3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 104.

Priority of creditors abolished, 32

Freehold and copyhold estates being now, under 3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 104, liable to simple contract debts, the court is no longer under any such necessity of resorting to the doctrine of marshalling to enforce their payment (d). And the recent statute 32 & 33 Vict., c. 46, having abolished the priority of specialty over simple contract debts in the administration of the estates of & 33 Vict., c. all persons dying after the 1st of January 1870, 46, and 38, & 39 Vict., c. 77, questions of marshalling as between creditors have now \$10. all persons dying after the 1st of January 1870, become of little practical importance (e),—and of yet less importance in the case of persons dying insolvent on or after the 1st November 1875, as stated in the preceding chapter.

No marshalling except between creditors of the same person.

Marshalling would not, unless founded on some equity, have been enforced as between persons, unless they were creditors of the same debtor, and had demands against funds the property of the same debtor. "It was never said," observed Lord Eldon, "that if I have a demand against A. and B., a creditor of B. shall compel me to go against A., without more; . . . but if I have a demand against both, the creditors of B. have no right to compel me to seek payment from A., if not founded on some equity, giving B. the right for his own sake to seek payment from A." (f).

(f) Ex parte Kendall, 17 Ves. 520.

⁽d) Cradock v. Piper, 15 Sim. 301; Gwynne v. Edwards, 2 Russ. 280 n.

⁽e) See also 36 & 37 Vict., c. 66, s. 25, supra.

The court has applied the like principles to the Mrshalling of marshalling of securities; but this subject is one of so securities,—general rules difficult a character, and depends upon distinctions so regarding. minute, that it is hardly possible to express the law regarding it in anything like a brief and intelligible way. The following is an attempt to express the more salient points of the law:-

The general principle may be thus stated, adopting with some slight adaptation the words of Lord Hardwicke in Lanoy v. Duke of Athole (g), viz.:—If a person having two real estates, mortgages both estates to A., and afterwards mortgages one only of the estates to B., whether or not B. had notice of A.'s mortgage (h), the court directs A. (but always without prejudice to A.) to realise his debt out of that estate which is not in mortgage to B., so as to leave the one estate which is in mortgage to B. to satisfy B. so far as it goes.

This general principle of marshalling is applicable also as against a surety, to whom (on payment by him of the debt) A. may have assigned his two securities (i).

The principle is subject to the following restriction, viz., that the marshalling of securities is not enforceable by B. to the prejudice of C. (a third person) (j). The subject will be more fully discussed in the chapter on Mortgages, and in the chapter on Suretyship, infra.

Secondly, it remains to consider the doctrine of 2. As between

⁽g) 2 Atk. 446.

⁽h) Tidd v. Lister, 10 Hare 157.

⁽i) South v. Bloxam, 2 Hem. & Mill. 457; Robinson v. Gee, 1 Ves. Sr. 252.

⁽j) Averall v. Wade, L. & G. t. Sugd. 252; Barnes v. Racster, I Yo. & Col. Ch. Ca. 401; Thorneycroft v. Crockett, 2 H. L. Cas. 239.

the benefiunder the will.

marshalling as between the divers beneficiaries entitled . ciaries entitled under the will, and (in the case of partial intestacies) as between also the heir-at-law and the next of kin. In this group of cases, it is usually by reason of the disturbing action of the creditors of the deceased that the question of marshalling arises, although occasionally (as will be shown later on in this present chapter) it may arise from other causes. Now, where it arises from the disturbing action of creditors,—the general principle which runs through all the cases of marshalling as between beneficiaries may be arrived at in this of the liability way, viz.,—Taking the various properties specified on p. 271, supra, in the order of their respective liabilities to the payment of debts in the administration of assets as shown on that page, and substituting in the same order the various persons to whom these various properties would go if there were no debts to pay, and to whom they do, in fact, go, so far as they are not exhausted by the payment of debts, we obtain the following list of the persons entitled under the will (and otherwise) to participate in the property of the deceased testator, that is to say,-

The general principle of marshalling, how derived from the order of the divers properties.

- I. The next of kin or the residuary legatees;
- 2. The heir-at-law;
- 3. The heir-at-law;
- 4. The charged devisees (specific and residuary);
- 5. The pecuniary legatees;
- 6. The devisees (specific and residuary) and the specific legatees;
- 7. The general appointees by deed or will; and.
- 8. The widow.

Now, the general rule of marshalling is derived from the preceding list of beneficiaries in this way, and is to this effect, viz.:—

That if any beneficiary in the above list is disappointed of his benefit under the will through the creditor seizing upon (as he may) the fund intended for such disappointed person, then such person may recoup or compensate himself for that disappointment (to the extent thereof) by going against the fund or funds intended for (and in that way similarly disappointing in his turn) any one or more of the beneficiaries prior to himself in the above list; and such secondly disappointed person or persons may in his or their turn do the like against those prior to him or them, so that eventually the next of kin or residuary legatees (as the case may be) have to bear the disappointment without any means of redress; but nobody may go against any one posterior to himself on the list; and persons occupying the same rank in the list may have contribution (if not compensation) as against each other.

We proceed to test this rule in its application to the The general principle,decisions. application of.

Although, with the exception of necessary wearing Widow's paraapparel (k), a widow's paraphernalia are liable to her phernalia preferred to a deceased husband's debts, she will be preferred to a general general legatee, and be entitled therefore to marshal assets in all cases in which a general legatee would be entitled to do so (l). And on principle it would seem to be settled also, that a widow, as to her paraphernalia, is to be deemed entitled to precedence also over specific legatees and devisees (m). In fact, both principle and the weight of authority point to the conclusion that a widow, as to her paraphernalia, is entitled to rank next after the ordinary creditors (n).

⁽k) Lord Townshend v. Windham, 2 Ves. Sr. 7.
(l) Tipping v. Tipping, 1 P. W. 730; Boynton v. Parkhurst, 1 Bro.

C. C. 576.
(m) Lord Townshend v. Windham, 2 Ves. Sr. 7; Probert v. Clifford, Amb. 6; Graham v. Londonderry, 3 Atk. 395.

⁽n) Wms. Real Assets, 118.

Right of heir as to descended land.

If the heir-at-law has paid any debts, which ought to have been paid, first, out of the general personal estate, secondly, out of lands subject to a trust or power for their payment, he will have a right to have the assets marshalled in his favour, as against those two funds, but not to the prejudice of pecuniary legatees; still less to the disappointment of specific gifts; for the heir is not a devisee, while the general or specific legatees take by the special bounty of the testator (o).

Devisee of lands charged with debts. A devisee of lands charged with the payment of debts paying any debts whilst any of the previously liable property remains unexhausted, will have a right to have the assets marshalled in his favour, and to stand in the place of the creditor so far as regards, 1st, the general personal estate; 2d, land subject to a trust or power for raising the debts; and, 3d, lands descended to the heir (p).

Position of a residuary devisee. Since the decision of Lord Chelmsford in *Hensman* v. *Fryer* (q), as affirmed and applied in *Lancefield* v. *Iggulden* (r), residuary devisees stand in the same position as specific legatees or devisees.

Against whom pecuniary legatees may marshal.

Pecuniary legatees, if the personal estate out of which they are to be paid has been exhausted by creditors, are entitled to be paid—

- (a.) Out of lands which descend to the heir (s).
- (b.) Out of lands devised simply subject to debts (t).

(o) Hanby v. Roberts, Amb. 128.
(p) Harmood v. Oglander, 8 Ves. 106.

⁽q) L. R. 3 Ch. App. 420; Gibbins v. Eyden, L. R. 7 Eq. 371. (r) L. R. 10 Ch. App. 136; and see Tomkins v. Colthurst, L. R. 1 Ch. Div. 626; Farquharson v. Floyer, L. R. 3 Ch. Div. 109.

⁽s) Sproule v. Prior, 8 Sim. 189. (t) Rickard v. Barrett, 3 K. & J. 289.

(c.) Out of lands subject to a mortgage, to the extent to which the mortgagee may have disappointed them by resorting first to the personal estate (u).

But pecuniary legatees have no right to marshal against lands comprised in a residuary devise any more than against specific legatees and devisees (v), unless such residuary devise should be charged with the payment of debts.

In this view of the law, specific legatees and de-Specific legavisees (including residuary devisees) have the right, if tees and devisees, called on to pay any debts of their testator, to have the whole of his other property real or personal marshalled in their favour, so as to throw the debts as far as possible on the other assets, which are antecedently liable.

A specific devisee (including a residuary devisee) Contribute and a specific legatee contribute pro ratâ to satisfy the interse. debts of the testator, which the property antecedently liable has failed to satisfy, for the testator's intention of bounty is equal in all these cases (w).

If, however, the subject of any specific devise (includ- If specific deing a residuary devise) or specific bequest is liable to visee or legatee any particular burden of its own, the devisee or legatee a burden, he cannot compel must bear it alone, and cannot call the other specific the others of legatees or the other devisees to his aid. Thus, the to contribute. devisee of land bought by the testator but not paid

general application of the decision in Hensman v. Fryer, L. R. 3 Ch. App. 420.

(w) Tombs v. Roch, 2 Coll. 490, as explained in Lancefield v. Iggulden, supra.

⁽u) Johnson v. Child, 4 Hare, 87; and see Lutkins v. Leigh, Cas. t. Talb. 53 (where the creditors were mortgagees), and Lord Lilford v. Powys-Keck, L. R. I Eq. 347 (where the creditors were unpaid vendors). And compare Wythe v. Henniker, 2 My. & K. 635.
(v) Lancefield v. Iggulden, L. R. 10 Ch. App. 136, showing the true

for, cannot call on the other devisees or on the specific legatees to pay a proportion of the purchase-money to which his land is subject by reason of the vendor's lien, although prior to 30 & 31 Vict., c. 69, he might have claimed to have his land exonerated at the expense of every one else taking property antecedently liable (x).

Marshalling between legatees, where certain legacies are charged on real estate.

There is yet another case in which equity, out of regard to the testator's intention, marshals assets in This case, however, does not defavour of legatees. pend on the same principle as those we have already mentioned; it does not arise in consequence of the disturbing action of any creditor who has taken some part of the assets out of their usual order, but simply from the presumption that when a testator leaves legacies, he wishes that if possible they should all be paid. To understand this branch of the subject, the reader must bear in mind that even to the present day legacies are not payable out of real estate UNLESS the testator has charged his real estate with their payment (y), there never having been any statute passed to do for legacies what the statute 3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 104, has done for simple contract debts. If, therefore, a testator should leave certain legacies payable only out of his personal estate, and certain others which he has charged on his real estate, in aid of his personalty, and the personalty should not be sufficient to pay the whole, equity will marshal these legacies. so as to throw those charged on the real estate entirely on that estate, in order to leave more of the personalty applicable to the payment of the other legacies (z).

(z) Bonner v. Bonner, 13 Ves. 379; Scales v. Collins, 9 Hare, 656; Wms. Real Assets, 115.

⁽x) Emuss v. Smith, 2 De G. & Sm. 722; and see also the cases cited on p. 275, footnote (z).

⁽y) As to what amounts to an implied charge of legacies upon land, see Greville v. Browne, 7 H. L. Ca. 789; and for the extent of such implied charge, see Gainsford v. Dunn, L. R. 17 Eq. 405.

But where the charge of a legacy upon real estate Where alegacy fails to affect it, in consequence of an event happen-charged on real estate ing subsequently to the death of the testator, as the falls, it will not be treated death of the legatee before the time of payment, as if it were the court will not marshal assets so as to turn such so as to be legacy upon the personal estate, in which case it made transmissible. would be vested and transmissible, whereas, against the real estate, it would sink by the death of the legatee (a).

Assets are never marshalled in favour of legacies Assets not given to charities, upon the ground that a court of marshalled in equity is not warranted in setting up a rule of equity charities. contrary to the common rules of the court merely to support a bequest which is contrary to law. If, therefore, a testator should bequeath to a charity a legacy payable out of the produce of his real and personal estate (b), or a simple legacy without expressly charging it on that part of his personal estate which he may lawfully bequeath to charitable uses, the legacy will fail by law in the proportion which the real estate and personalty in the one case, or such personalty in the other, may bear to the whole fund out of which the legacy was made payable (c); or, as Lord Cottenham has expressed himself in Williams v. Kershaw (d), "The rule of the court adopted in all such cases is, to appropriate the fund as if no legal objection existed as to applying any part of it to the charity legacies, then holding so much of the charity legacies to fail as would in that way be to be paid out of the prohibited fund." But when it is said that the court will not marshal legacies in favour of charities, it is meant that the

⁽a) Prowse v. Abingdon, 1 Atk. 482; Pearce v. Loman, 3 Ves. 135.

⁽b) Currie v. Pye, 17 Ves. 462.
(c) Robinson v. Geldard, 3 Mac. & G. 735; Fourdrin v. Gowdey, 3 My. & K. 397; Johnson v. Lord Harrowby, Johns. 425; Hobson v. Blackburn, I Keen, 273. (d) I Keen, 275 n.; and see Blann v. Bell, 7 Ch. Div. 382.

court will not do so when the will is silent; because if (as is usually the case) the will expressly directs that the legacies shall be marshalled in favour of the charities, then the court is ready to carry out that direction, and it does so with a liberal hand (e).

⁽e) Miles v. Harrison, L. R. 9 Ch. App. 316; Att.-Gen. v. Lord Mountmorris, 1 Dick. 379; Luckraft v. Pridham, W. N. 1879, p. 94-

CHAPTER XVI.

MORTGAGES.

A LEGAL mortgage may be defined to be a debt by Definition of specialty, secured by a pledge of lands or other pro-mortgage. perty, not being (like pew-rents) unmortgageable (a), of which the legal ownership is vested in the creditor, but of which in equity the debtor, and those claiming under him, remain for the time the actual owners. is, therefore, necessary, first, to show what is the effect Mortgage at of a mortgage at common law, and then to show how common law. equity has modified or altered the common law to suit the ends of practical justice. At law, the ordinary mortgage, or mortuum vadium, as it was called, was An estate strictly an estate upon condition; that is, a feoffment tion. of the land was made to the creditor, with a condition in the deed of feoffment or in a deed of defeazance executed at the same time, by which it was provided that on payment by the mortgagor, or feoffor, of a given sum at a time and place certain, it should be lawful for him to re-enter. Immediately on the livery made, the mortgagee or feoffee became the legal owner of the land, and in him the legal estate instantly vested, subject to the condition. If the condition was per-Forfeiture at formed, the feoffor re-entered and was in possession of tion broken. his old estate. If the condition was broken, the feoffee's estate became absolute and indefeasible, and all the legal consequences followed, as though he had been

⁽a) Ex parte Arrowsmith, in re Leveson, 8 Ch. Div. 96.

absolute unconditional owner from the time of the feoffment (b).

Interference of equity.

Happily, a jurisdiction arose, under which the harshness of the common law was softened without any actual interference with its principles, and a system was established, at once consistent with the security of the creditor, and a due regard for the interests of the debtor (c). Our courts of equity, borrowing the doctrines of the civil law, did not indeed attempt to alter the legal effect of the forfeiture at common law; but leaving the forfeiture to its legal consequences, they operated on the conscience of the mortgagee, and acting in personam and not in rem, they declared it unreasongagee. Mortgage held able that he should retain as owner for his own benefit what was intended as a mere pledge, and they adjudged that a breach of the condition was in the nature of a penalty which ought to be relieved against, and that the mortgagor had an "equity to redeem," on payment, within reasonable time, of principal, interest, and costs, notwithstanding the forfeiture at law. Against the introduction of this novelty the common law judges strenuously opposed themselves, and though ultimately defeated by the increasing power of equity, they, nevertheless, in their own courts, still adhered to the rigid doctrine of forfeiture, and in the result, the law of mortgage fell almost entirely within the jurisdiction of equity (d).

Equity operated on the conscience of the morta mere pledge.

Mortgagor's equity to redeem notwithstanding forfeiture at law.

Mortgages an exception to the maxim, modus et conventio vincunt legem.

at time of loan part with his

No sooner, however, was this equitable principle established, than the cupidity of creditors induced them to attempt its evasion, and it was a bold but a necessary decision of equity that the maxim of law, modus et conventio vincunt legem, was inapplicable-that the Debtor cannot debtor could not, even by the most solemn engagements entered into at the time of the loan, preclude

⁽b) Coote, 6.

⁽c) Coote, 9.

himself from his right to redeem. The courts, looking right to realways at the intent, rather than at the form of things. deem. disregarded all the defences by which the creditor surrounded himself, and laid down as a plain and invariable rule (e), that it was inequitable that the creditor should obtain a collateral or additional advantage through the necessities of his debtor, beyond the payment of principal, interest, and costs (f), and they established as a principle not to be departed from, that "once a mort-"Once a gage always a mortgage;" that an estate could not at ways a mortgage, and at another time cease to gage." be so, by one and the same deed; and that whatever clause or covenant there might be in a conveyance, yet, if upon the whole it appeared to have been the intention of the parties that such conveyance should only be a mortgage, or should only pass an estate redeemable, a court of equity would always construe it so (g). These Right of prerules, however, did not prevent a mortgagee agreeing emption in mortgagee. with the mortgagor, for a preference or right of preemption in case of a sale (h); and any other agreements between mortgagor and mortgagee (provided they did not exclude the equity of redemption) were and are good, e.g., an agreement not to call in the principal moneys, so long as the interest is paid (i).

And the rule regarding mortgages must also be dis-Conveyance tinguished from the rule governing a class of cases where re-purchase there is ab initio an absolute bonâ fide sale and con-in mortgagor. veyance with a collateral agreement for re-purchase by the mortgagor, on repayment of the purchase-money within a stipulated time (i); and such collateral agree-

⁽e) Bonham v. Newcomb, 2 Vent. 364; Howard v. Harris, 1 Vern. 19 (e) Bonnam V. Newcomb, 2 Vent. 304; Howard V. Harris, 1 Vent. 19
(f) Chambers v.; Goldwin, 9 Ven. 254; Leith v. Irvine, 1 My. & K.
277; Broad v. Selfe, 11 W. R. 1036.
(g) Coote, 11; Jennings v. Ward, 2 Vern. 520.
(h) Orby v. Trigg, 9 Mod. 2; Cookson v. Cookson, 8 Sim. 529.
(i) Keene v. Biscoe, 8 Ch. Div. 201.
(j) Alderson v. White, 2 De G. & J. 97; Birmingham Canal Co. v.

Cartwright, 11 Ch. Div. 421.

Circumstances distinguishing a mortgage from a sale with right of re-purchase.

ment may be either introduced into the agreement for sale at the time, or may be made at a subsequent period. Whether a given transaction is a mortgage properly so called, or is a sale with the option of re-purchase, depends on the special circumstances of each case; and parol evidence will always be admitted to show, that what appears on the face of the deed to be an absolute conveyance was intended to be a conveyance by way of mortgage only (k). "If the money paid by the grantee would be a grossly inadequate price for the absolute purchase of the estate; if he was not let into immediate possession of the estate; if he accounted for the rents to the grantor, and only retained an amount equivalent to interest; or if the expense of preparing the deed of conveyance was borne by the grantor, each of these circumstances has been considered as evidence, showing with more or less cogency that the conveyance Effects of this was only intended as a security" (1). And it must be remembered, that the difference between a transaction by way of sale with a right of re-purchase, and a mortgage, is very important with reference to the con-In a sale with sequences of each. Whereas, in a mortgage, even after forfeiture at law, the mortgagor has his right of redemption in equity, in the case of a sale with a right of re-purchase, the time limited ought precisely to be observed, and there is no principle on which the court can in the latter case relieve, if the time is not exactly observed (m). And there is also this further important difference, viz.:--that in the case of a sale, with an option to re-purchase, if the purchaser die seised, and then the right to re-purchase is exercised, the money goes to his real representative, and not as in

distinction.

right of re-purchase, time is strictly to be observed.

In a sale with right of re-purchase, if purchaser die seised, money goes to real representative.

case of a mortgage to his personal representatives (n).

⁽k) Maxwell v. Montacute, Prec. Ch. 526; Barnhart v. Greenshields, 9 Moo. P. C. C. 18; Douglas v. Calverwell, 3 Giff. 251.
(l) Powell on Mortgages, by Coventry, 125a.; Brooke v. Garrod, 3 K. & J. 608, 2 De G. & Jo. 62; Williams v. Owen, 5 My. & Cr. 303.
(m) Barrell v. Sabine, 1 Vern. 268.
(n) Thornbrough v. Baker, 2 L. C. 1046; St. John v. Wareham, cited

³ Swanst. 631.

Besides these, there are several other species of other forms securities for money which do not take the form of an of securities,—ordinary mortgage. Thus,

- r. The owner of an estate may, in consideration of r. Vivum money lent, convey it to the lender, with a condition lender to pay that as soon as he, the lender, shall have repaid him-himself from self out of the rents and profits of the land the profits. principal and interest of the loan, the debtor may reenter. This is said to have been called a vivum vadium, because as the pledge itself worked off the debt it might be deemed to possess a sort of vitality. It seems now to have entirely ceased (o).
- 2. The mortuum vadium, on the other hand, was of 2. Mortuum a very different character. According to Glanville (p), Greditor took the mortuum vadium was a feofiment to the creditor rents and profits withand his heirs, to be held by him until his debtor paid out account. him a given sum, and until which time he received the rents without account, so that the estate was unprofitable or dead to the mortgagor in the meantime, the original debt remaining undiminished by the reception by the mortgagee of the rents and profits; in other words, the pledge in this case did not of itself work off the debt, but was in a manner dead. However, there was the like advantage, in one respect, to the debtor in this form of mortgage as in the vivum vadium, Estate never viz., that the estate was never lost (q), but remained redeemable upon satisfaction of principal and interest at any time, however distant.
- 3. This mortuum vadium closely resembled the form 3. Welsh mort-of mortgage called a Welsh mortgage, in which the gage. rents and profits are received by the mortgagee as an equivalent for the interest, and the principal remains undiminished (r). In a Welsh mortgage there is no Mortgagor

⁽o) Coote, 4.

⁽q) Coote, 5.

⁽p) Lib. 10, v. 6.

⁽r) Coote, 4.

may redeem at contract express or implied between the parties for any time. the repayment of the debt at a given time; and though the mortgagee cannot foreclose or sue for the money, the mortgagor or his heirs may redeem at any time (s).

Modern mortgage.

There is no trace of the period when the ancient mortuum vadium fell into disuse. In its stead arose the mortuum vadium of modern times or mortgage so well known at common law, which has already been described as an estate upon condition (t). modern form of mortgage, when the mortgagee is in possession, he is accountable in equity for the rents and profits, and by means thereof he in effect works off the debt, as in the vivum vadium: but differently from the vivum vadium, the modern mortgage may from various causes (as we shall see) become irredeemable.

The nature of an equity of it is an estate in the land mortgagor has full power, subject to the incumbrance.

In early times, it was said that an equity of redempredemption, tion was a mere right; but in Cashorne v. Scarfe (u). Lord Hardwicke laid it down that this equity was an over which the estate in the land, and that the mortgagor was entitled to such estate as the real owner of the land, for the land was considered in equity only as a pledge or security for the money. It follows, therefore, that the person entitled to the equity of redemption, being considered in equity the real owner of the land, may exercise all such rights and acts of ownership over the incumbered land as he might have exercised over the unincumbered, subject, of course, to the rights of the mortgagee or incumbrancer. The mortgagor therefore might settle, or devise, or mortgage the land subject to the mortgagee's incumbrance (v).

And from the principle that an equity of redemption Devolution of

⁽s) Howell v. Price, Prec. Ch. 423, 477; and see I Ves. Sr. 405. (t) Coote, 5; Litt. sec. 332. (u) 2 L. C. 1035; 1 Atk. 603. (v) Casborne v. Scarfe, I Atk. 603.

is an estate, it follows also that its line of devolution equity of remust in the course of descent be governed, as the land demption same as of the itself would have been, by the general law, or by the land. lex loci; and therefore if the land be of gavelkind tenure, the equity of redemption will be devisable in like manner, or if the tenure be borough-English, the youngest son will be entitled (w).

The equity of redemption being an estate in land, Who may persons entitled to certain interests in that equity are entitled before foreclosure to come into a court of equity and to redeem (x). As,—

(a.) The heir (y).

- (b.) The devisee of the equity of redemption (z).
- (c.) A tenant for life, a remainder-man, a reversioner, a dowress, a jointress, a tenant by the curtesy (α) .
 - (d.) An assignee or grantee (b).
 - (e.) A subsequent mortgagee (c).
 - (f.) A judgment creditor (d).
 - (g.) The crown, or the lord on a forfeiture (e).
- (h.) A volunteer, although claiming under a deed fraudulent and void, under 27 Eliz., c. 4 (f).

N.B.—That one of several co-mortgagees can sue the mortgagor for redemption, making the other mortgagees co-defendants, when they refuse to be co-plaintiffs (g).

⁽w) Coote, 26; Fawcet v. Lowther, 2 Ves. Sr. 301.

⁽x) 2 Sp. 660-663. (y) Pym v. Boureman, 3 Swanst. 241 n.
(z) Lewis v. Nangle, 2 Ves. Sr. 431. (a) 2 L. C. 1078.
(b) Anon. 3 Atk. 314. (c) Fell v. Brown, 2 Bro. C. C. 278.
(d) Stonehewer v. Thompson, 2 Atk. 440; Beckett v. Buckley, L. R. 17 Eq. 435; Anglo-Italian Bank v. Davies, 9 Ch. Div. 275; Bryant v. Bull, 10 Ch. Div. 153.

(e) Lovel's Case, 1 Eden, 210; Downe v. Morris, 3 Hare, 394.

⁽f) Rand v. Cartwright, 1 Ch. Ca. 59. (g) Luke v. South Kensington Hotel Co., 7 Ch. Div. 739; 11 Ch. Div. 121.

Successive redemptions, order of, and general principle regarding.

Every person who has a right to redeem the mortgage may redeem any prior incumbrancer on payment of principal, interest, and costs (h) due to him; the redeeming party being also liable to be redeemed by those below him, who are all liable successively to be redeemed by the mortgagor (i); and the rule or practice is in a bill or action of foreclosure to offer to redeem all incumbrances prior in date to the plaintiff, and to claim to foreclose (if necessary) all incumbrances posterior in date to the plaintiff, unless these latter, or some or one of them, should redeem the This rule is familiarly expressed in the plaintiff (i). phrase, "Redeem up, foreclose down." The arrears of interest recoverable upon a redemption or foreclosure are usually six years only (k), but are occasionally the entire arrears (l). An auctioneer-mortgagee may be entitled to add his commission, that not being a secret profit (m).

· Time to redeem.

A person cannot redeem before the time appointed in the mortgage deed, although he tenders to the mortgage both the principal and the interest due up to that time (n); and if the mortgagee should, as a matter of indulgence, consent to accept payment before the time appointed, he is entitled to the full amount of interest up to that time. So, likewise, if after the day fixed for the payment of the money is passed, the mortgager should wish to pay off the mortgage, he must give to the mortgagee six calendar months' previous notice in writing of his intention so to do, and must then punctually pay or tender the money at the ex-

⁽h) Ex parte Carr, in re Hofmann, II Ch. Div. 62; Sheffield v. Eden, 10 Ch. Div. 291.

⁽i) 2 Sp. 665. (j) Beevor v. Luck, L. R. 4 Eq. 537; Bradley v. Riches, 9 Ch. Div. 189.

⁽k) 3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 27 s. 42. (l) Smith v. Hill, 9 Ch. Div. 143. (m) Miller v Beal, W. N. 1879, p. 36.

⁽n) Brown v. Cole, 14 Sim. 427.

piration of the notice (o); for if the money should not be then ready to be paid, the mortgagee will be entitled to fresh notice; as it is only reasonable that he should have time afforded him to look out for a fresh security for his money (p); and in either of these cases if the mortgagee should, as a matter of indulgence, consent to accept payment at less than six months' notice, he is entitled to the full amount of his interest for the six months.

Previous to the statute of Limitations, 3 & 4 Will. Statute of Limitations. IV., c. 27, the rule established regarding possession by old law,—21 mortgagees was, as stated by Lord Hardwicke, analo-Jac. I., c. 16. gous to the old statute of Limitations, 21 Jac. I., c. 19, viz., "that after twenty years' possession by the mortgagee he should not be disturbed" (q). Where, however, the mortgagor was prevented from asserting his claim by reason of certain impediments, mentioned as exceptions in the stat. 21 Jac. I., c. 16, viz., imprisonment, infancy, coverture, &c., in all such cases, by analogy to the statute, equity allowed ten years after the removal of the impediment (r). Also, any slight acknowledgment by the mortgagee, of the existence of the equity of redemption would have taken the case out of the analogy of the statute (s).

The law on this subject was regulated, until the Present law,—
1st January 1879, by the stat. 3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 3&4 Will. IV.,
27, s. 28, as explained by 7 Will. IV. and I Vict., c. plained by 7
Will. IV. and 28, by which it was enacted, that whenever a mort- I Vict., c. 28. gagee had obtained possession of the land comprised in his mortgage, the mortgagor should not bring a suit to redeem the mortgage but within twenty years (with or without ten years more for disability) next after the time when the mortgagee obtained pos-

⁽o) Sharpnell v. Blake, 2 Eq. Ca. Ab. 603. (p) Wms. R. Prop. 411. (q) Anon. 3 Atk. 313. (r) Beckford v. Wade, 17 Ves. 99. (s) Smart v. Hunt, 4 Ves. 478 n.

session, or next after any written acknowledgment of the title of the mortgagor, or of his right or equity of redemption, should have been given to him or his agent, signed by the mortgagee (t); and under the Real Property Limitations Act, 1874 (u), s. 7, the period of twenty years is now twelve years, and the ten years allowed for disability is now six years, but otherwise the law is as it was under the previous statutes of limitation. It is to be observed that the statutes of limitation in relation to land bar and extinguish the title, and not merely the action or remedy of the dispossessed person (v).

Of the estate of the mortgagor.

c. 76.

Judicature Act, 1873, 36 & 37 Vict., c. 66, s. 25, § 5.

With whatever strictness the ancient common law may have originally regarded the breach of the condition by the mortgagor, yet in modern times the doctrine of the court of equity recognising the mortgagor until foreclosure to be the actual owner of the land, has been to some extent imported into the common law by the 15 & 16 Vict., legislature. By stat. 15 & 16 Vict., c. 76, ss. 219, 220, if the mortgagor being in possession, an ejectment is brought by the mortgagee, provided no suit is pending in any court of equity for redemption or foreclosure, the payment of principal, interest, and costs will, except in certain cases, be deemed a satisfaction of the mortgage, and the mortgagee is thereupon to discontinue his action. And under the Judicature Act, 1873, "a mortgagor entitled for the time being to the possession or receipt of the rents and profits of any land, as to which no notice of his intention to take possession, or to enter into the receipt of the rents and profits thereof, shall have been given by the mortgagee, may sue for such possession or for the recovery of such rents and profits, or to prevent or

⁽t) Batchelor v. Middleton, 6 Hare, 75; Lucas v. Dennison, 13 Sim. 584; Stansfield v. Hobson, 16 Beav. 236; Thompson v. Bowyer, 11 W. R. 975; Hickman v. Upsall, L. R. 2 Ch. Div. 617; and on appeal, 4 Ch. Div. 144.

⁽v) Johnson v. Mounsey, II Ch. Div. 284.

recover damages in respect of any trespass or other wrong relative thereto, in his own name only, unless the cause of action arises upon a lease or other contract made by him jointly with any other person."

A mortgagor, while he is in possession, is not bound Mortgagor in to account for the rents and profits arising or accruing possession not accountable while in possession, even although the security should for rents and prove insufficient (w); in fact, he is not the bailiff or agent of the mortgagee.

But, although the mortgagor remains thus, the actual owner of the land until foreclosure, still equity, regarding the land, with all its produce, as a security for the mortgage debt, will restrict the mortgagor's right of ownership within certain bounds, so that his ownership may not operate to the detriment or injury of the mortgagee. Hence equity will, on a bill filed by the mortgagee, grant an injunction against the mortgagor's Restrained waste, e.g., against the felling of timber by the mort-from waste if gagor; but in order to grant the injunction in such a insufficient. case, the court must first be satisfied that the security is insufficient (x). Neither will equity interpose its authority to obstruct the mortgagee from evicting the mortgagor from the possession, but will consider the latter as being for such purpose a mere tenant at Occasionally the mortgagee makes a redemise of the mortgaged premises to the mortgagor; but more usually the mortgagor simply expresses that he attorns and becomes tenant to the mortgagee at a specified rent (z). Further, and as a further consequence of the mortgagor being for the aforesaid purpose only a tenant at will, it follows that the mortgagor Mortgagor

(w) Ex parte Wilson, 2 Ves. & Bea. 252.

⁽x) Farrant v. Lovell, 3 Atk. 723; King v. Smith, 2 Hare, 239; Russ

v. Mills, 7 Gr. 145.
(y) Cholmondeley v. Clinton, 2 Mer. 359.
(z) Ex parte Williams, 7 Ch. Div. 138; In re Stockton Iron Furnace Co., 10 Ch. Div. 335.

to mortgagee. Mortgagor cannot make leases binding on mortgagee.

tenant at will cannot make a valid lease binding on the mortgagee, and if he should attempt to make such a lease, the mortgagee may eject his lessee without notice (a). The consequence of this rule is, that in practice both mortgagor and mortgagee should combine in making the lease, wherever, at least (as in the case of mines), expense is to be incurred by the lessee, or there is a reasonable probability of the mortgagee proceeding to eviction.

Mortgagee entitled to possession.

The mortgagee, by virtue of his mortgage, becomes the legal owner of the land, and consequently entitled at law to immediate possession, or to the receipt of the rent, if the land be in lease (b).

Receiver of mortgaged estates.

The mortgagee is entitled, out of the profits, to repay himself all the necessary expenses attending the collection of the rents (c), and he may stipulate with the mortgagor for the appointment of a receiver to be paid by the mortgagor (d); and under the statute 23 & 24 Vict., c. 145, a power to require the appointment of a receiver is now made an incident in every mortgage of lands, unless the mortgage deed expressly exclude such power. But courts of equity, fearful of opening a door to fraud, have imposed a restriction on the mortgagee, that he shall not be permitted to charge for per make any charge on the estate for his own personal trouble (e); nor appoint himself a receiver of the estate, although under an express agreement with the mortgagor for that purpose (f), for he is entitled to no benefit beyond his principal, interest, and costs.

Mortgagee shall not sonal trouble.

With regard to mortgagees of West India estates.

West India estates.

⁽a) Keech v. Hall, Doug. 22.

⁽b) Coote, 339. (c) Godfrey v. Watson, 3 Atk. 518, (d) Davis v. Dendy, 3 Mad. 170.

⁽e) Godfrey v. Watson, 3 Atk. 518. (f) French v. Baron, 2 Atk. 120.

and whether they may charge commission, the result of the cases appears to be, that whilst the mortgagee is out of possession, he may stipulate for the consignment of the produce, and charge commission on the net produce as a compensation for his trouble (q); but that when he is in possession, he stands in precisely the same situation as a mortgagee in possession in England; and consequently, if he chooses to be consignee himself, he has no commission (h).

A stipulation that the mortgagee shall receive inter-Stipulation for est at £4 per cent. if regularly paid, but £5 per cent. interest on if default is made, is good if £5 per cent. be reserved punctual payment, by the deed. But if £4 per cent. only is reserved, a stipulation that £5 per cent. shall be paid, if the interest be not regularly paid, is in the nature of a penalty, against which the court will relieve (i). also are the fines and penal payments contained in ciety mortmortgages to building societies, semble (j). Sed quære, gages.

It is the duty of the mortgagee in possession to Mortgagee keep the premises in necessary repair. He will be must keep estate in necess entitled to all his lawful expenses attending the re- sary repair with surplus newal of leases, or incurred in maintaining the title rents. (k). But a mortgagee is not bound to lay out money on the estate, except for necessary repairs, and that only to the amount of the surplus rents (1), nor can he, on the other hand, compel the mortgagor to advance money for the renewal of the leases without an express agreement between them to that effect (k).

⁽g) Faulkner v. Daniel, 3 Hare, 218.
(h) Leith v. Irvine, 1 My. & K. 277; Coote, 343.
(i) 2 Sp. 631; Tipton Green Colliery Co. v. Tipton Moat Colliery Co.,
L. R. 7 Ch. Div. 192.
(j) Ex parte Osborne, in re Goldsmith, L. R., 10 Ch. App. 41; In re
N. and N. P. Benefit Building Society, Smith's Case, L. R. 1 Ch. Div. 481; but see Provident Permanent Building Society v. Greenhill, 9 Ch.

⁽k) Manlove v. Bale, 2 Vernon, 87; Godfrey v. Watson, 3 Atk. 518.

⁽l) Coote, 344.

Mortgagee in possession must account.

Even though he has assigned the mortgage.

When the mortgagee is in possession, he is considered in equity, in some measure, in the light of a trustee, or bailiff, for the mortgagor, and is accountable for the rents and profits of the land; and therefore, if without the assent of the mortgagor he assigns over the mortgage to another, he will be held liable to account for the profits received subsequently even to the assignment, on the principle that having turned the mortgagor out of possession, it is incumbent on him to take care in whose hands he places the estate (m). The consequence of this rule of equity is, that the mortgagor is usually asked, and may easily be compelled, to concur in the assignment.

Mortgagee is accountable for what he actually receives, or what but for his wilful default he might have received.

But although the mortgagee is liable to account, he is not obliged to account according to the actual value of the land, nor is he bound by any proof that the land is worth so much, unless it can be proved that he made so much out of it, or might have done so but for his own wilful default, as if without cause he turned out a sufficient tenant who held it at so much rent, or refused to accept a tenant who would have given so much for it (n). This limited protection accorded to the mortgagee is so accorded to him, because it is the laches of the mortgagor, that he lets the land lapse into the hands of the mortgagee by the non-payment of the money; therefore, except as above-mentioned, when the mortgagee enters, he is only accountable for what he actually receives, and is not bound to take the trouble of making the most of another's property (o) and above all the mortgagee is not bound to work or to keep working, at a speculative profit, the minerals in the land mortgaged (p). The same rule, limiting the

⁽m) Coote, 303; National Bank of A. v. United Hand in Hand Co., 4 App. Ca., 391.

⁽n) Coote, 345; Anon. I Vern. 45; Simmins v. Shirley, L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 173; Eyre v. Hughes, L. R. 2 Ch. Div. 148.

⁽o) Coote, 345.
(p) Rowe v. Wood, I Jac. & Walk. 315.

accountability of a mortgagee in possession, applies to the mortgagee selling under his power of sale (q).

The mortgagee, without payment of principal, inter- Mortgagee est, and costs, cannot be compelled by the mortgagor until payment or his assigns to produce the title-deeds, even though compelled to produce his their production is required for the purpose of enabling title-deeds. the mortgagor to negotiate a loan, and so to pay off the mortgagee (r). But upon redemption, the mortgagee must be in a position to hand over all the titledeeds, and will be liable in damages to the mortgagor for any title-deed that is missing, or fraudulently disposed of (s).

It seems that a mortgagee cannot accept a valid Mortgagee lease from the mortgagor, even, it appears, though free cannot take a from circumstances of fraud, and at a fair rent. The from mortreason for this disability has been thus stated:--" The mortgagor is under the control of the mortgagee in the very subject-matter of the contract, and if the mortgagee had distinctly said to the mortgagor, 'You must let to me a lease for ninety-nine years, at the rent which I think fit to give, and if you will not, I will harass you by all the means by which a mortgagee can harass a debtor; 'it is plain a lease so obtained could not stand. If the same thing can be done without a word spoken, the same consequences ought to follow. Ought evidence of such a conversation to be required? Is it not better to hold, as in the case of a trustee, 'because this may be done, it shall be taken as done, and the act, if disputed, shall be invalid'" (t).

A further considerable disability annexed to the Mortgagee

⁽q) Mayer v. Murray, 8 Ch. Div. 424. (r) Damer v. Lord Portarlington, 15 Sim. 380; and see Sheffield v. Eden, 10 Ch. Div. 291.

⁽s) James v. Rumsey, 11 Ch. Div. 398.7 (t) Webb v. Rorke, 2 Sch. & Lef. 661; Coote, 364.

cannot in equity make a binding lease.,

mortgagee's estate is, that although he is at law the actual owner, and consequently can make and is the only person to make a good legal title, yet he cannot in equity make a valid or binding lease, unless, it seems, it is of necessity, and to avoid a probable loss (u). The consequence of this rule is, that both the mortgagor and the mortgagee concur in making leases, wherever permanency of holding is desirable.

Renewed leaseholds.

Advowson.

Equity holds that if leaseholds be in mortgage, and the mortgagee renew, he will take the renewed lease subject to the like equity, as was subsisting in the old lease (v); and if an advowson be in mortgage, and the living become vacant, the mortgagor, and not the mortgagee, shall present (w); nor will equity permit the mortgagor to agree to the contrary, for the mortgagee shall have no benefit beyond his principal, interest, and costs.

Mortgagee cannot fell timber.

Unless security be insufficient.

A further restriction on the estate of the mortgagee in possession is, that he shall not be permitted to waste the estate (x). If he proceed to fell timber, an account will be decreed, and the produce applied, first, in payment of the interest, and then, in sinking the principal, and equity will grant an injunction against him, unless the security prove defective, in which case the court will not restrain him from felling timber, the produce being of course applied in ease of the estate (y). The like rules apply to the opening of new mines (z). So, if the mortgagee unnecessarily pulls down buildings and erects new buildings without the consent of the

⁽u) Hungerford v. Clay, 9 Mod. 1. (v) Holt v. Holt, 1 Ch. Ca. 190.

⁽w) Mackenzie v. Robinson, 3 Atk. 559. (x) Hanson v. Derby, 2 Vern. 392.

⁽y) Withrington v. Bankes, Sel. Ch. Ca. 30.

⁽z) Hanson v. Derby, 2 Vern. 392; Millet v. Davey, 31 Beav. 470.

mortgagor, he is liable for any loss of rent which is thereby occasioned (a).

With reference to the rights of mesne, or interme- The doctrine diate incumbrancers, the doctrine of tacking has been of tacking,—its principle. thus stated: "In aequali jure, melior est conditio pos-Where equity is equal, the law shall prevail; and he that hath only a title in equity, shall not prevail against law and equity. As a purchaser or mortgagee comes in upon a valuable consideration without notice, upon purchasing in a precedent incumbrance, it shall protect his estate against any person that hath a mortgage subsequent to the first, and before the last mortgage, though he purchased in the first incumbrance, after he had notice of the second mortgage; for he hath both law and equity" (b). In considering this rule of equity, Lord Hardwicke has remarked (c), that it could not happen in any other country Doctrine of but this, because the jurisdiction of law and equity is tacking, administered here in different courts, and creates different kinds of rights in estates; and therefore, as courts of equity break in upon the common law, where necessity and conscience require it, still they allow superior force and strength to a legal title to estates; and therefore, where there is a legal title and there is also equity on one side, the Court of Chancery never thought fit, that by reason of a prior equity against a man who has a legal title, that man shall be hurt, and this, by reason of the force which the court necessarily and rightly allows to the common law, and to legal titles; but if this had happened in any other country, it could never have been made a question; for if the law and equity are administered by the same jurisdic-

⁽a) Sandon v. Hooper, 6 Beav. 246; 14 L. J. Ch. 120.
(b) 2 Fonblanque on Eq. 302, 5th ed.
(c) Wortley v. Birkhead, 2 Ves. Sr. 574.

tion, the rule qui prior est tempore, potior est jure, must hold (d). However, since the fusion of the two jurisdictions of law and equity by the Judicature Acts, 1873-75, the cause alleged by Lord Hardwicke for the origin of tacking has been removed, and yet the doctrine itself continues unaffected: which shows, either that the assigned origin is not the origin, or not all the origin, or else that results may survive the causes which have brought them about.

The doctrine of tacking,—its rules.

The leading principles or rules of the doctrine of tacking are fully stated in the case of *Brace* v. *Duchess* of *Marlborough* (e).

1. Third mortgagee without notice of second, buying in first mortgage with notice of second, may tack.

r. "That if a third mortgagee buys in the first mortgage, being a legal mortgage, though it be pendente lite, pending a bill brought by the second mortgagee to redeem the first, yet the third mortgagee having obtained the first mortgage, and got the law on his side and equal equity, he shall squeeze out the second mortgagee, and this, the Lord Chief-Justice Hale called a 'plank' gained by the third mortgagee, or tabula in naufragio, which construction is in favour of a purchaser, every mortgagee being such pro tanto."

Because he is without notice, when he parts with his first cash.

In this case it must carefully be noted that although the third mortgagee get in the first mortgage, pendente lite, i.e., with notice, he shall, nevertheless, be allowed to tack. The principle on which the doctrine is founded is thus explained (f):—"The rule of equity requires no more than that the third mortgagee should not have had notice of the second at the time of lending the money; for it is by lending the money without notice that he becomes

⁽d) Rooper v. Harrison, 2 K. & J. 108, 109.

⁽e) 2 P. W. 491; and see (regarding the rule in Toulmin v. Steere, 3 Mer. 210) Adams v. Angell, L. R. 5 Ch. Div. 634; Cracknall v. Janson, L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 735.

⁽f) I Eden. 530.1

an hones tereditor, and acquires the right to protect his And may debt. But he is not compelled to look for this protective this honest tion till his debt is in danger of being prejudiced; debt, against subsequently and, therefore, when that danger is discovered to him, discovered whether it be by suit in equity, or by an extra-judicial dangers. means, as the honesty of his debt' is not affected by the discovery, so the right of protecting that debt, and the efficacy of such protection, are not prejudiced; hence arose the rule which permitted the subsequent incumbrancers to purchase pendente lite" (g). Although if By transfer of the legal estate be outstanding in a third person who legal estate, if outstanding in has no privity with the several incumbrancers, the person having no privity with party obtaining it would have priority, yet where prior incumthe legal owner is trustee for all, he cannot create a priority by subsequently transferring the estate to any or either of them in particular. Thus, if an owner having the legal estate, create a charge in favour of A., then a second charge in favour of B, and then a third in favour of C., he cannot alter the equities by transferring the legal estate to any of them (h).

2. That if a judgment-creditor buys in the first 2. Judgmentmortgage, although being a legal mortgage, he shall not creditor buytack or unite the mortgage to his judgment, and thereby first mortgage shall not tack. gain a preference; for such judgment-creditor cannot be called a purchaser, nor has he any right to the land; he has neither jus in re nor jus ad rem. All that he Judgmenthas by his judgment is a lien on (i) or inchoate right creditor not a against the land, but non constat, whether he will ever make use of it, for he may take his debt out of the goods of his debtor by fieri facias, [or he may take his body, after which, during the defendant's life, he can

⁽g) Marsh v. Lee, I L. C. 659; Morret v. Paske, 2 Atk. 52; Wilmot

v. Pike, 5 Hare, 14.
(h) Sharples v. Adams, 11 W. R. 450; 32 Beav. 213; Mumford v. Stohwasser, L. R. 18 Eq. 556. Pilcher v. Rawlins, L. R. 7 Ch. App. 259, is distinguishable.

⁽i) But see now 27 & 28 Vict., c. 112.

He did not lend his money in contemplation of the land.

or could (before the Judicature Acts, 1873-75) have no other execution]; besides which, the judgment-creditor does not lend his money on the immediate view or contemplation of the land, nor is he deceived or defrauded, though his debtor had before made twenty mortgages of his estate; but a mortgagee is defrauded or deceived, if the mortgagor has already mortgaged his land to another (i).

Law unaltered c. IIO.

It would seem from the principles laid down in the by 1 & 2 Vict., judgment in Whitworth v. Gaugain (k), that the law in this respect has not been altered by the I & 2 Vict., Judgment can c. 110; for if the effect of the judgment is only to charge the interest which the debtor has remaining in him, the creditor can have no right, by means of tacking, to cut off an incumbrance which preceded his

only affect what the debtor had to part with.

judgment (l).

Law how far altered by 27 & 28 Vict., c. 112.

But as by 27 & 28 Vict., c. 112, s. 2, judgmentcreditors are for the future deprived of their lien on real estates, until such land has been actually delivered in execution by virtue of a writ of elegit, or other lawful authority, it appears that a judgmentdebt cannot now be tacked, unless such delivery has been made.

3. First mortgagee lending a further sum against a mesne mortgagee.

3. That if a first mortgagee being a legal mortgagee lends a further sum to the mortgagor upon a statute or on a judgment judgment, he shall retain against a mesne mortgagee, may tack until both his securities are satisfied (m); and \hat{a} fortiori if the first mortgage lends on a mortgage (n).

⁽j) Lacey v. Ingle, 2 Ph. 413; Spencer v. Pearson, 24 Beav. 266.
(k) 3 Hare, 416; and see British Mutual Investment Co. v. Smart,

L. R. 10 Ch. App. 567.
(1) Coote, 409; Kinderley v. Jervis, 22 Beav. 1; Beavan v. Lord Oxford, 6 De G. M. & G. 507.

⁽m) Shepherd v. Titley, 2 Atk. 348.(n) Wyllie v. Pollen, 11 W. R. 1081.

This rule results from the doctrine already noticed, But first mortthat where equity is equal, the law shall prevail. But gagee must have the legal this principle will not apply unless the first mortgagee estate or the better right to has the legal estate or the better right to call for it; for call for it. otherwise the incumbrancers will be payable according to the priority of their respective incumbrances; nor will the rule apply if the mortgagee had notice of the And must mesne incumbrance, at the time of making the further make the advance without advance (o).

And it has further been decided, that although the First mortfirst mortgage was made to secure a sum and further not have advances, if the first mortgagee make a further advance notice of the mesne incumwith notice of a mesne incumbrance, he will not brance. be entitled to priority in respect of such further advance (p).

4. When a puisne mortgagee has bought in a prior 4. Where legal incumbrance, but the legal estate is vested in a trustee, standing, inor the puisne mortgagee has not obtained the legal title, cumbrancers rank accordor he takes en autre droit (q), the court clearly holds ing to time. that the puisne mortgagee can make no advantage of his prior incumbrance, because in all cases where the legal estate is outstanding, the several incumbrancers must be paid according to their priorities in point of time,—qui prior est tempore, potior est jure.

But if any one of the incumbrancers has a better Unless one of title to call for an assignment or conveyance of the the incumbrancers has a legal estate, as, for instance, when a declaration of better title to trust of the legal estate has been made in his favour, legal estate. he will be placed in equity, in the same situation as if he had obtained an actual assignment (r).

⁽o) Coote on Mortgages, 409; see Credland v. Potter, L. R. 10 Ch. App. 8.

⁽p) Shaw v. Neale, 20 Beav. 157; Rolt v. Hopkinson, 9 H. L. Cas. 514. These two cases appear to have overruled Gordon v. Graham,

² Eq. Ca. Abr. 598. (q) Morret v. Paske, 2 Atk. 52., (r) Pomfret v. Windsor, 2 Ves. Sr. 487; Allen v. Knight, 5 Hare, 272; Wilmot v. Pike, 5 Hare, 14; Cooke v. Wilton, 29 Beav. 100.

When a bond debt may be tacked,— (a.) During life of debtor, -never. (b.) After death of debtor .only as against volunteers.

It appears that a prior mortgagee having a bond debt, whether prior or subsequent to his mortgage (s), cannot tack it against any intervening incumbrancer by mortgage, or even against an intervening judgment or bond creditor (t), or even against the mortgagor himself (u), or as against a purchaser of the equity of redemption; but only as against the heir (v), or as against the beneficial devisee (w); and this for the sole purpose of preventing circuity of action (x). since 3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 104, it seems a simple contract debt may be tacked against the heir or devisee where there is not a devise for payment of debts (y). In other words, the bond debt cannot be tacked at all during the life of the mortgagor, but only after his death upon an administration of his assets, when of course it will be preferred to the heir or beneficial devisee (z).

Tacking abolished by Vendor and 1874, and re-1875.

By 37 & 38 Vict., c. 78, s. 7, the doctrine of tacking was abolished as regard estates and interests Purchaser Act, created after the 7th August 1874; but by the Land stored by Land Transfer Act, 1875 (a), which came into operation on Transfer Act, the 1st January 1876, it is enacted as follows:-- "The seventh section of the Vendor and Purchaser Act, 1874. is hereby repealed, as from the date at which it came into operation, except as to anything duly done thereunder before the commencement of this Act."

Priority may be lost by mortgagee's fraud.

The right of priority may be lost by fraud. man by the suppression of the truth which he was

⁽s) Windham v. Jennings, 2 Ch. Rep. 247.

⁽⁸⁾ Withhalm v. Jentungs, 2 Ch. 16ep. 247.
(t) Lowthian v. Hasel, 3 Bro. C. C. 16e.
(u) Jones v. Smith, 2 Ves. 376.
(v) Shuttleworth v. Laycock, 1 Vern. 245.
(w) Challis v. Casborn, 1 Eq. Ca. Ab. 325; Du Vigier v. Lee, 2 Hare, 326.

⁽x) Heams v. Bance, 3 Atk. 630; Coote, 391-393.

⁽y) Coote, 402; Sp. 723-725, 735. (z) In re Haselfoot's Estate, Chauntler's claim, L. R. 13 Eq. 327. (a) 38 & 39 Vict., c. 87.

bound to communicate, or by the suggestion of a falsehood, be the cause of prejudice to another who had a right to a full and correct representation of the fact, it is certainly agreeable to the dictates of good conscience, that his claim should be postponed to that of the person whose confidence was induced by his representation" (b).

A mortgagee may also lose his priority by his own Priority may negligence. Thus A., a mortgagee of leasehold pro-belost by mortgagee's perty, lent the lease to the mortgagor for the purpose negligence inducing decepof obtaining a further advance upon it, but at the same tion. time told the mortgagor to inform the person, of whom he proposed to obtain the money, that A. had a prior The mortgagor deposited the lease with his bankers without informing them of A.'s mortgage. On a bill for foreclosure by A., it was held that, as A. by his negligence had put it into the mortgagor's power to commit a fraud, his security must be postponed to that of the banker's (c).

As a general rule, both in suits for foreclosure and Consolidation in suits for redemption, the mortgagor cannot redeem $_{\rm Mortgagor}^{\rm of\ mortgages}$ one mortgage without redeeming all other mortgages must redeem all the mortwhich the mortgagee holds upon any part of his pro-gages which perty; for these the mortgagee has a right to consoli-holds on his date together (d). And this rule is applicable as well property. to mortgages of realty (e) as to mortgages of personalty (f), and holds good against a purchaser for value of the equity of redemption, and also against a subse-

⁽b) 1 Fonblanque on Eq. 64; Coote, 415.
(c) Briggs v. Jones, L. R. 10 Eq. 92; and see Credland v. Potter, L. R. 10 Ch. App. 8.

⁽d) Selby v. Pomfret, I J. & H. 336; 9 W. R. 583; Phillips v. Gutteridge, 4 De G. & Jo. 531; Tassell v. Smith, 2 De G. & Jo. 713-718.

(e) Neve v. Pennell, 11 W. R. 986.

(f) Watts v. Symes, I De G. M. & G. 240; Tweedale v. Tweedale, 23

Beav. 341.

quent mortgagee thereof, although each is without notice of the other mortgages (g).

Consolidation distinguished from tacking,

The doctrine of consolidation depends upon a principle altogether different from that upon which tacking depends. Because in tacking, the right is to throw together several debts lent on the same estate, and to do so under the priority and protection afforded by the legal estate; but in consolidation, the right is to throw together on one estate several debts lent on different estates, and to do so without reference to any priority or protection afforded by the legal estate, but solely upon the equitable maxim that he who seeks equity must do equity. Further, not only is getting in the legal estate not necessary as a preliminary to consolidation as it is to tacking, but even notice at the time of lending the mortgage money on the second estate, which would be fatal to any subsequent right of tacking, is wholly immaterial as regards the right of consolidation (h). Sed quære; because,—

Consolidation, —necessary limit to. To the doctrine of consolidation, the recent case of Baker v. Gray (i) has put a very desirable limit. Hall, V.-C., after looking personally into all the previous cases, stated, in effect, in his judgment in that case, that "there had been no case decided on the principle of consolidation in favour of a mortgagee whose mortgage was non-existing at the time when the second mortgage (or, semble, subsequent purchase) was made. . . . The principle had been rested by Wood, V.-C., upon the capacity of the party to make the inquiry; but such an inquiry was impossible into what was non-existing."

⁽g) Beevor v. Luck, L. R. 4 Eq. 537—explained in Baker v. Gray, L. R. 1 Ch. Div. 491.

⁽h) Fisher on Mortgages, 2d ed. pp. 678, 679.
(i) L. R. I Ch. Div. 491; Cracknall v. Janson, II Ch. Div. I; but see an unreported case of Hill v. Astley, Lanc. Ch. Crt. 1878 (Little, V.-C.).

N.B.—A solicitor may be held liable for negligence in not discovering a mesne incumbrance; and the measure of damages might be the amount of the incumbrance (i).

Equity having determined that the mortgage debt Special remeshall be considered the principal, and the land a pledge, gagee,—and as a consequence that the mortgagor, notwith- (a.) Foreclosure. standing his breach of condition and the consequent forfeiture at law of his estate, shall be relievable in equity on payment of principal, interest, and costs, and that the mortgagee in possession was accountable for the rents and profits; it became, on the other hand, just, that the mortgagee should not be subject to a perpetual account, nor converted into a perpetual bailiff, but that after a fair and reasonable time given to the mortgagor to discharge the debt, he should lose his equity, or, in other words, be foreclosed his right of redemption.

An intermediate mortgagee is entitled to file a bill Foreclosure or commence an action of foreclosure against the mort-ture of, and gagor, and all mortgagees subsequent to himself (k): time for. and in his action he usually offers to redeem any mortgagees prior to himself whom he makes parties to the action. When the mortgagor is a bankrupt, this remedy may occasionally, at the mortgagee's option, be obtained in the Court of Bankruptcy under s. 72 of the Bankruptcy Act, 1869, but the mortgagee cannot be restrained if he chooses to proceed in the Chancery Division (1). A foreclosure action cannot be brought but within twenty years next after the right to bring such action first accrued, or within twenty years after the last payment of any part of the

⁽j) Whiteman v. Hawkins, 4 C. P. Div. 13.

⁽k) 2 Sp. 674. (l) Ex parte Fletcher, in re Hart, 9 Ch. Div. 381; 10 Ch. Div. 610; Ex parte Hirst, in re Wherley, 11 Ch. Div. 278.

principal money or interest (m); and only six years' arrears of interest are recoverable as against the land (n). The remedy of a debenture-holder is usually the appointment of a receiver (o).

(b.) Sale,either, court.

Before the stat. 15 & 16 Vict., c. 86, courts of either, (1) Under 15 & equity, except in a new cases, remain to describe the control of Viet., c. 86, against the will of the mortgagor; but under that equity, except in a few cases, refused to decree a sale statute, s. 48, the Court of Chancery may direct a sale of mortgaged property instead of a foreclosure, on such terms as it may think fit. This order for a sale is not to be made on an interlocutory application (p).

Or (2) under power of sale in the mortgage-deed.

A power of sale, even before that Act, was usually inserted in mortgage-deeds, giving the mortgagee authority to sell the premises; but such a power was only permitted where the mortgaged land did not exceed in value the money lent; for if the security were very ample, it was not likely that the mortgagor would consent to such a power being given to the mortgagee, in case default should be made in payment; and the concurrence of the mortgagor in the sale is not necessary to perfect the title of the purchaser (q). The mortgagee having sold, is at liberty to retain to himself principal, interest, and costs: and having done this, the surplus, if any, must be paid over to the person or persons who (but for the sale) would have been entitled to redeem.

Or (3) under

Also, under the stat. 23 & 24 Vict., c. 145, s. 11,

⁽m) 3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 27, ss. 24, 28; 7 & 8 Will. IV. & I Vict, c. 28; Coote, 449. And see the Real Property Limitation Act, 1874. (n) In re Stead's Mortgaged Estates, L. R. 2 Ch. Div. 713; and see Hickman v. Upsall, L. R. 2 Ch. Div. 617, and, on appeal, 4 Ch. Div.

⁽c) In re Herne Bay Co., 10 Ch. Div. 43.
(p) London and County Banking Co. v. Dover, 11 Ch. Div. 204. (q) Corder v. Morgan, 18 Ves. 344; Neuman v. Selfe, 33 Beav. 522; Dicker v. Angerstein, L. R. 3 Ch. Div. 600.

a power of sale, unless expressly excluded by the mort-statutory gage-deed, has been rendered incident to every mortgage power of sale conferred by or charge by deed affecting any hereditaments of any 23 & 24 Vict., tenure. This power, however, is not to arise until either after one year from the time when the principal money shall have become payable according to the terms of the deed, or after any interest on such principal money shall have been in arrear for six months, or after any omission to pay any premium on any insurance which by the terms of the deed ought to be paid by the person entitled to the mortgaged property. And no sale is to be made until after six months' notice in writing. Where mortgaged property is taken by com- Compensation, pulsory purchase, the compensation-moneys go to on compulsory purchase, mortgagee, including proportion paid for goodwill (if any) attaching to the premises (r).

Where the mortgage deed contains an attornment clause, the mortgagee may also (like a landlord for his rent) distrain upon the mortgaged premises (the distrainable articles therein) for the arrears of his interest. and sometimes even for a large part of the principal money lent, provided the attornment clause is not fraudulent (s).

If a debt be secured by the mortgage of real estate, Mortgagee and also collaterally by covenant or by bond, the may pursue all his rememortgagee may pursue all his remedies at the same dies concurrently. time (t). If the mortgagee obtain full payment on the bond or covenant, the mortgagor is by the fact of payment entitled to a re-conveyance of the estate, and foreclosure is rendered unnecessary. But if the mortgagee obtains only part payment on the bond or on the

⁽r) Pile v. Pile, ex parte Lambton, L. R. 3 Ch. Div. 36.

⁽s) Ex parte Williams, 7 Ch. Div. 138; In re Slockton Iron Furnace Co., 10 Ch. Div. 335.
(t) Lockhart v. Hardy, 9 Beav. 349; Marshall v. Shrewsbury, L. R.

¹⁰ Ch. App. 250.

If mortgagee foreclose first, and then sue on the covenant, he opens and mortgagor may redeem.

Mortgagee must therefore have the

estate in his power.

covenant, he may institute or go on with his foreclosure action, and giving credit in account for what he has received on the bond or covenant, he may foreclose for nonpayment of the remainder. On the other hand, if he obtains a foreclosure first, and alleges that the value of the estate is not sufficient to satisfy the debt, he is the foreclosure, not absolutely precluded from suing on the bond or covenant; but it is held, that by doing so he gives to the mortgagor a renewed right to redeem the estate, and get it back, or, in other words, he thereby opens the foreclosure, and consequently upon the commencement of an action against the mortgagor on the bond after foreclosure, the mortgagor may commence an action, or even, semble, counter-claim, for redemption, and upon payment of the whole debt secured by the mortgage, he is entitled to have the estate back again, and the securities given up. After foreclosure, therefore, the court will not restrain the mortgagee from suing on the bond, provided he retains the mortgaged estate in his power, ready to be redeemed in case the mortgagor should think fit to avail himself of the foreclosure (u); but if on the other hand the mortgagee has so dealt with the mortgaged estate as to be unable to restore it to the mortgagor on full payment (v), the court will prevent his suing at law on the bond or covenant to receive the residue of the mortgage-money A foreclosure decree is almost always liable to be opened, even after a long interval of time and intermediate dealings with the property; in other words, a mortgagor may redeem even after foreclosure absolute. but only upon terms of the strictest equity (x).

The equity of

There is a class of cases in which the question has

⁽u) 2 Sp. 682.

⁽v) Lockhart v. Hardy, 9 Beav. 349.

⁽w) Palmer v. Hendrie, 27 Beav. 349.

⁽x) Campbell v. Holyland, L. R. 7 Ch. Div. 166.

been, whether it is intended by the parties making the redemption mortgage that the equity of redemption shall be limited follows the limitations of in a manner different from the uses subsisting in the the original estate prior to the mortgage, or shall result to the same uses. These questions have generally arisen in Mortgage mortgages by husband and wife of the wife's estate; by husband of his wife's and the principle of equity in such cases is, that if estate. money be borrowed by the husband and wife upon the security of the wife's estate, although the equity of Equity of reredemption is by the mortgage deed reserved to the demption results to husband and his heirs, or to the husband and wife and wife. their heirs, yet there shall be a resulting trust for the benefit of the wife and her heirs, and that the wife or her heir shall redeem, and not the heir of the husband, her estate being in equity deemed only a security for his debt (y). But at the same time, the intention to Unless a differalter the previous title may be manifested by the ent intention manifested. language of the proviso itself, and there is no necessity for an express declaration or recital to that effect (z).

(z) Atkinson v. Smith, 3 De G. & Jo. 186-192; Jones v. Davies, L. R. 8 Ch. Div. 205.

⁽y) Huntingdon v. Huntingdon, 2 L. C. 1032; Jackson v. Parker, Amb. 687; Jackson v. Innes, 1 Bligh, 104; Whitbread v. Smith, 3 De G. M. & G. 727; Coote, 523; and distinguish the case of Dawson v. Bank of Whitehaven, L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 218, which was a case of husband and wife mortgaging the husband's estate, the wife being a concurring party in order to release her dower therein.

CHAPTER XVII.

OF EQUITABLE MORTGAGES OF REALTY BY DEPOSIT OF TITLE-DEEDS.

Statute of Frauds requires contracts concerning lands to be in writing.

Deposit of title-deeds. being an agreementexecuted, is not within the statute. THE Statute of Frauds (a) enacts that "no action shall be brought upon any contract or sale of lands, tenements, or hereditaments, or any interest in or concerning them, unless the agreement upon which such action shall be brought, or some memorandum or note thereof, be in writing, and signed by the party to be charged therewith, or some other person thereunto by him lawfully authorised." Notwithstanding this statute, it is now decided (b) that if the title-deeds of an estate are. without even verbal communication, deposited by a debtor in the hands of his creditor, or of some third person on his behalf (c), such deposit is of itself evidence of an agreement executed for a mortgage of the estate (d), of which agreement the creditor may avail himself as of an agreement in writing for that purpose: for he may file his bill for the completion of the security by a legal conveyance from his debtor, who will not be allowed to plead the Statute of Frauds (e). appears to be now finally settled that a mortgagee by

⁽a) 29 Car. II., c. 3, s. 4. (b) Russel v. Russel, I L. C. 726.

⁽c) Ex parte Coming, 9 Ves. 115. (d) Ex parte Wright, 19 Ves. 258.

⁽e) Pryce v. Bury, 2 Drew. 42; Ferris v. Mullins, 2 Sm. & Giff. 378: Ex parte Moss, 3 De G. & Sm. 599.

deposit is entitled to the remedy by foreclosure (f); but, of course, he is also entitled to a sale (q).

In Keys v. Williams (h), Lord Abinger said,—"The Origin of the doctrine of equitable mortgages has been said to be an invasion of the Statute of Frauds. . . . But in my opinion that statute was never meant to affect the transaction of a man borrowing money and depositing his title-deeds as a pledge of payment. A court of law could not assist such a party to recover back his title-deeds by an action of trover; the answer to such an action being, that the title-deeds were pledged for a sum of money, and that till the money is repaid, the party has no right to them. So, if the party came into equity for relief, he would be told that before he sought equity he must do equity, by repaying the money, in consideration for which the deeds had been lodged in the other party's hands."

In Russel v. Russel (i) it was decided that the deeds Deposit of were a security for the sum advanced at the time of deeds covers the deposit, and only for that sum. But this rule has vances, been extended, and it is now held that such a deposit will cover future advances, if such was the agreement when the first advance was made; or if it can be proved that a subsequent advance was made on an agreement, express or implied, that the deeds were to be a security for it as well (j). An equitable mortgage by deposit carries interest at the rate of £4 per and interest. cent (k).

⁽f) Pryce v. Bury, L. R. 16 Eq. 153 n.; James v. James, ibid.; and see Marshall v. Shrewsbury, L. R. 10 Ch. App. 250; Backhouse v. Charlton, 8 Ch. Div. 444.

(g) York Union Banking Co. v. Astley, 11 Ch. Div. 205.

⁽h) 3 Y. & C. Exch. Ca. 55, 61. (i) 1 L. C. 726.

⁽j) Ex parte Kensington, 2 V. & B. 83; Ede v. Knowles, 2 Y. & C. C. C. 172; James v. Rice, 5 De G. M. & G. 461.
(k) Re Kerr's Policy, L. R. 8 Eq. 331.

Deposit of deeds for purpose of preparing a legal mortgage. Where there has been a deposit of title-deeds for the purpose of preparing a legal mortgage, the balance of authority seems to be in favour of the proposition that a delivery of deeds for the purpose of preparing a legal mortgage constitutes, in fact, a valid interim equitable mortgage (*l*),—that interim effect being not inconsistent with the expressed purpose of the deposit of title-deeds.

Parol agreement to deposit deeds for money advanced. A parol agreement to deposit title-deeds for a sum of money advanced does not without an actual deposit constitute a good equitable mortgage (m); but if in writing, such an agreement would be good, without an actual deposit.

All title-deeds need not be deposited.

It is now clearly decided that in order to create an equitable mortgage it is not necessary that all the title-deeds, or even all the material title-deeds, should be deposited; it is sufficient if the deeds deposited are material to the title, and are proved to have been deposited with the intention of creating a mortgage (n).

Deposit of Land Certificate. Where land has been registered with an indefeasible title, the land certificate (and not the title-deeds) is the proper document to deposit (o).

Equitable mortgagee parting with the title-deeds to mortgagor.

An equitable mortgagee who parts with the titledeeds, and so enables the depositor to make another equitable mortgage, may be postponed to such second equitable mortgagee by reason of his laches, in not getting back the deed — on the principle that, as be-

⁽l) 1 L. C. 733. (m) Ex parte Coombe, 4 Mad. 249; Ex parte Farley, 1 M. D. & De G.

⁽n) Lacon v. Allen, 3 Drew. 579; Roberts v. Croft, 24 Beav. 223; 2 De G. & Jo. 1.

⁽o) Fisher on Mortgages, 2d ed., pp. 41, 42.

tween two innocent parties, the one must suffer who has permitted the fraud to be committed (p).

An equitable mortgagee by deposit of title-deeds Equitable will be entitled to priority over a subsequent legal mortgage has mortgagee who advanced his money with notice of the subsequent legal mortdeposit (q). And constructive notice will suffice for gagee, with this purpose; but mere incaution will not prevent the Legal mortlegal mortgagee from asserting his priority over the gagee postprior equitable mortgagee. The principles which govern equitable this class of cases are thus summarised by Turner, V.-C., mortgagee, if in Hewitt v. Loosemore (r),—"That a legal mortgagee is been guilty not to be postponed to a prior equitable one, upon the gross negliground of his not having got in the title-deeds, unless Not postthere be fraud or gross and wilful negligence on his poned if he has made bond part; that the court will not impute fraud, or gross or fide inquiry wilful negligence, to the mortgagee, if he has bonû fide deeds. inquired for the deeds, and a reasonable excuse has been given for the non-delivery of them; but that the court will impute fraud, or gross and wilful negligence, to the mortgagee, if he omits all inquiry as to the deeds; and I think there is much principle both in the rule itself and in the distinctions upon it. When this court is called upon to postpone a legal mortgagee, its powers are invoked to take away a legal right; and I see no ground which can justify it in doing so, except fraud, or gross and wilful negligence, which, in the eye Gross and of this court, amounts to fraud; and I think that in wilful neglitransactions of sale and mortgage of estates, if there mount to fraud. be no inquiry as to the title-deeds which constitute the sole evidence of the title to such property, the Absence of court is justified in assuming that the purchaser or deeds, premortgagee has abstained from making the inquiry from sumptive evidence of a suspicion that his title would be affected if it was fraud.

poned to prior

(r) 9 Hare, 458.

 ⁽p) Waldron v. Sloper, I Drew. 193.
 (q) Hiern v. Mill, 13 Ves. 114; Jones v. Williams, 5 W. R. 540.

made, and is, therefore, bound to impute to him the knowledge which the inquiry if made would have imparted. But I think, if a bonâ fide inquiry is made, and a reasonable excuse given, there is no ground for imputing the suspicion, or the notice which is consequent upon it; but the person who accepts the excuse will afterwards have the burden of showing that it was a reasonable one for any prudent lender of money to accept "(s).

⁽s) Spencer v. Clarke, 9 Ch. Div. 137.

CHAPTER XVIII.

OF MORTGAGES AND PLEDGES OF PERSONALTY.

A MORTGAGE of personal property differs from a pledge. Differences The mortgage is a conditional transfer or conveyance between a mortgage of the very property itself, the interim possession and a pledge of personalty, usually remaining with the mortgagor; and if the (a.) In their condition is not duly performed, the whole title vests own nature. absolutely at law in the mortgagee, exactly as it does in the case of a mortgage of lands. A pledge, on the other hand, passes the possession immediately to the pledgee, who acquires at the same time a special property only in the article pledged, with a right of retaining same until the debt is discharged (a).

In cases of pledges, if a time for the redemption (b.) As regards be fixed by the contract, still the pledgor may redeem remedies. afterwards, if he applies within a reasonable time. But if no time is fixed for the payment, the pledgor has his whole life to redeem, unless he is called upon to redeem by the pledgee; and in case of the death of the pledgor without such demand, his personal representatives may redeem (b).

Generally speaking, the remedy of the pledgor or Remedy of a his representatives is at law. But if any special pledger, as a general rule, is ground is shown, as if an account or discovery is at law, and wanted, or there has been an assignment of the pledge, tionally in a bill will lie in equity (c).

⁽a) St. 1030; Jones v. Smith, 2 Ves. Jr. 378. (b) Vanderzee v. Willis, 3 Bro. C. C. 21; Kemp v. Westbrook' I Ves. 278. (c) Jones v. Smith, 2 Ves. Jr. 372. Sr. 278.

Remedy of a pledgee, as a general rule, is in equity; but pledgee may also sell, on notice to pledgor.

On the other hand, the pledgee may bring a bill in equity, to sell the pledge (d). It seems, also, that the pledgee may, after the time for redemption has passed, upon due notice given to the pledgor, sell the pledge without a judicial decree of sale (e).

In mortgages of personal property, although the

prescribed condition has not been fulfilled, there exists,

Differences between a mortgage of realty and a mortgage or pledge of personalty,

as in mortgages of land, an equity of redemption, which

remedies.

may be asserted by the mortgagor, if he brings his bill to redeem, within a reasonable time (f). There is, however, a difference between mortgages of land, on (a.) As regards the one hand, and mortgages and pledges of personal property on the other, in regard to the rights of the parties after a breach of the condition. In such a case, there is no necessity in mortgages of personalty or in pledges (as there usually is in mortgages of realty) to bring a bill of foreclosure; but the mortgagee or pledgee, upon due notice, may sell the personal property mortgaged or pledged. The reason of this difference seems to be the same in principle with that on which equity, as a general rule, refuses to decree a specific performance of an agreement concerning personal chattels; namely, that other things of the same kind, and of the very same worth, even to the owner himself, may be purchased for the sum which the articles in question fetch; and, therefore, if such property is mortgaged, the mortgagee may properly be allowed to sell it, on due notice, without the inconvenience of filing a bill of foreclosure (g).

Pledgee's

It appears that in the absence of express agreement

(g) Smith's Manual, 339.

⁽d) Ex parte Mountfort, 14 Ves. 606, explained in Fisher on Mortgages, 2d ed., p. 498 n. (t), and Carter v. Wake, L. R. 4 Ch. Div. 605.

(e) Kemp v. Westbrook, I Ves. Sr. 278; Lockwood v. Ewer, 9 Mod. 278; Pothonier v. Dawson, Holt's N. P. 385; St. 1053.

(f) Kemp v. Westbrook, I Ves. Sr. 278.

to the contrary, a pledgee may, even before condition right of broken, deliver over the pledge to a purchaser or to a transfer. sub-pledgee; and in either case, if the pledge is of a negotiable instrument, the pledgor will be bound; but if the pledge is of a non-negotiable instrument, the pledgor is bound only to the extent of the pledgee's own right: accordingly, in the case of a non-negotiable instrument, if the purchaser or sub-pledgee, upon tender to him, by the pledgor of the amount due to the original pledgee, should refuse to deliver up the pledge to the original pledgor, the original pledgor may have an action of detinue against the party so refusing (h).

The doctrine of tacking is applied to mortgages and (b.) As regards pledges of personalty, as against the party making them more extensively than as against a mortgagor of real estate; the presumption against the mortgagor or pledgor of personalty being, that, if the mortgagee or pawnee advance any further sums of money to the mortgagor or pawnor, the mortgage or pledge is to be held until the subsequent debt or advance is paid, as well as the original debt; and this, without any distinct proof of any contract for that purpose, such as it is necessary to prove in mortgages of real property (i).

Thus, where a policy on the life of A. had been Judgment and effected under circumstances, which amounted to an tract debts assignment of it by way of mortgage to B., to secure may be tacked. a sum lent by him to A., it was held that B. might tack, and retain the proceeds of the policy in satisfaction of a subsequent judgment debt (j).

⁽h) Fisher on Mortgages, 2d ed., p. 71.
(i) Demainbray v. Metcalfe, 2 Vern. 691; Sp. 772.
(j) Spalding v. Thompson, 26 Beav. 637.

cision has recently been followed in the case of subsequent debts by simple contract (k); but more recently, the right to tack in these cases has been denied (l).

(k) In re Haselfoot's Estate, L. R. 13 Eq. 327. (l) Talbot v. Frere, 9 Ch. Div. 568, in which Spalding v. Thompson, supra, and In re Haselfoot's Estate, supra, are commented upon by Jessel, M.R.

CHAPTER XIX.

OF LIENS.

Of liens there are many varieties. Thus, a lien may varieties of exist in favour of artisans and others, who have be-lien, -at law and in equity, stowed their labour and services in or towards the repair, and foundation of the property in equitable respect of which the lien is claimed. A lien has also jurisdiction in lien. an existence, in many other cases, by the usages of trade; and in maritime transactions, as in the cases of salvage and general average. It is often created and sustained in equity where it is unknown at law; as in cases of the sale of lands, where a lien exists for the unpaid purchase-money. Moreover, a lien even at law is not always confined to the very property upon which the labour or services have been bestowed: but it often is, by the usage of trade, extended to cases of a general balance of accounts, e.g., in favour of factors and others. Consequently, most cases of lien either in themselves involve a foundation for the jurisdiction of equity, or give rise to matters of account; and as the nature of the lien and the amount of the account are often involved in great uncertainty, a resort to a court of equity is in many cases absolutely indispensable for the purposes of justice.

The principal diversities among liens appear to be Diversities among liens. the following:-

(a.) A particular lien on goods,—which is confined to the very goods; and a general lien on goods,—which extends not only to the particular account but also to the general balance of the accounts (a).

- (b.) A lien on lands,—which commences only when the possession of the lands is parted with to the purchaser; and a lien on goods, -which lasts only while the possession is retained by the vendor, and which ceases when it is parted with to the purchaser (b). And.—
- (c.) The lien of a solicitor on the deeds and documents of his client,—which arises proprio vigore, but which at the most is only a passive protection; and the lien of a solicitor on a fund recovered,—which arises only upon the court's declaring the solicitor entitled to it, and which is in all cases (when once declared) both an active and (comparatively speaking) an immediate remedy and redress.

The lien of a solicitor on deeds. books, &c.

The lien which a solicitor has on the deeds, books. and papers of his client for his costs, is an instance of a lien originating in custom, and afterwards sanctioned by decisions at law and in equity. This lien is a right not depending upon contract; it wants the character of a mortgage or pledge; it is merely an equitable right to withhold from his client such things as have been intrusted to him as a solicitor, and with reference to which he has given his skill and labour, and not (as already suggested) a right to enforce any active claim against his client (c).

On fund realised in a suit.

On the other hand, the solicitor's lien upon a fund realised in a suit for his costs of the suit, or immediately connected with it, a lien which (as we have said) he

⁽a) In re Witt, ex parte Shubrook, L. R. 2 Ch. Div. 489.

⁽a) In te vi iii, is pure Shawtoon, B. H. 2 Ch. Div. 489.
(b) Grice v. Richardson, 3 App. Ca. 319.
(c) Bozon v. Bolland, 4 My. & Cr. 358; In re Messenger, ex parte Calvert, L. R. 3 Ch. Div. 317; In re Snell, L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 105; In re Mason v. Taylor, 10 Ch. Div. 729; and see Newington Local Board v. Eldridge, W.N., 1879, p. 149.

may actively enforce (d),—is the creation of the statute law, the 23 & 24 Vict., c. 127, s. 28, having enacted that it shall be lawful for the court or judge before whom any suit or matter has been heard (e), to declare that the solicitor employed therein is entitled to a charge upon the property recovered or preserved by his instrumentality in such suit or matter. A solicitor may even be entitled to both these liens at once (f), and the lien extends usually to the entire fund, not merely to the particular share of his own client therein (q).

It is quite settled that the solicitor's lien on papers Lien only exists only as against the client and the representatives commensurate with client's of the client; also, that such lien is only commen-right at the time of the surate with the right which the client had at the time deposit. of the deposit, and is therefore subject to the prior then existing rights of third persons, so that a prior incumbrancer is not prejudiced by it (h). And just as the solicitor's lien will not prejudice any prior existing equity, so the solicitor's lien will not be prejudiced by an equity arising subsequently to the inchoation of the lien (i). And the like rule appears to extend also to a lien on a fund recovered; thus, it has been decided that the lien of a solicitor on a sum due or payable to his client prevents a set-off against a sum due from the client (j).

3 Ch. App. 125.

⁽d) 2 Sp. 802; Smith's Man. 342; Verity v. Wylde, 4 Drew. 427; Haymes v. Cooper, 33 Beav. 431; Shaw v. Neal, 6 W. R. 635.
(e) Higgs v. Schrader, 3 C. P. D. 252; Owen v. Henshaw, 7 Ch.

Div. 385.
(f) Pilcher v. Arden, in re Brook, 7 Ch. Div. 318.
(g) Bulley v. Bulley, 8 Ch. Div. 479.
(h) Blunden v. Desart, 2 Dr. & Warr. 405; Young v. English, 7 Beav. 10; 2 Sp. 800, 801; Francis v. Francis, 5 De G. M. & G. 108; Turner v. Letts, 7 De G. M. & G. 243.
(i) Faithfull v. Ewen, 7 Ch. Div. 495; Moet v. Pickering, . Div. 372; and distinguish Pringle v. Gloag, 10 Ch. Div. 676.
(j) Ex parte Olelland, L. R. 2 Ch. App. 808; Ex parte Smith, L. R. 2 Ch. App. 125.

Banker's lien.

A banker also has a lien on the securities deposited by a customer for the customer's general balance of account, and this right subsists, where not inconsistent with the terms of a special contract for a specific security (k).

Quasi-liens.

Rights in equity equivalent to liens may also arise under various circumstances. Thus real or personal estate may be charged by an agreement express or implied, creating a trust, which equity will enforce, both against the person creating the lien, and against others claiming, as volunteers, or with notice, under him. Under this head will fall the cases of legacies and portions charged on land.

As where a charge in the nature of a trust.

Vendor's lien for advances for improvements. It has been held that, where a man agrees to sell his estate, and to lend money to the purchaser for improving the estate, he will have a lien for the advances so made, as well as for the purchase-money (l).

Joint-tenant's lien for costs of renewing lease. If one of two joint-tenants of a lease renew for the benefit of both, he will have a lien on the moiety of the other joint-tenant for a moiety of the fines and expenses (m).

No lien where two purchase and one pays the money. But it seems that where two or more purchase an estate, and one pays the money, and the estate is conveyed to them both, the one who pays the money gains neither a lien nor a mortgage, because there is no contract for either; he has a right of action only (n). So also if one of two joint lessees and occupiers of a house redecorates it at his own expense in the first instance, he has no lien in respect thereof (o), and in such a case he may have no action or remedy at all.

⁽k) In re European Bank, L. R. 8 Ch. App. 41.
(l) Ex parte Linden, 1 Mont. D. & D. 435; 2 Sp. 803.

⁽m) Ex parte Grace, 1 B. & P. 376.
(n) 2 Sp. 803.
(o) Kay v. Johnson, 21 Beav. 536; and see Saunders v. Dunman, 7 Ch. Div. 825.

CHAPTER XX.

PENALTIES AND FORFEITURES.

THE doctrine of equity with regard to penalties and Doctrine. forfeitures may be stated in the following words:-Wherever a penalty or a forfeiture is inserted, merely to secure the performance of some act, or the enjoyment of some right or benefit, equity regards the performance of such act, or the enjoyment of such right or benefit, as the substantial and principal intent of the instrument, and the penalty or forfeiture as only Penalty, &c., accessary, and will therefore relieve against the penalty sary. or forfeiture by simply decreeing a compensation in Compensation decreed. lieu of the same, proportionate to the damage really sustained (a). The penal sum is usually double the amount of the debt, and the obligee never recovers on account of principal, interest, and costs, or damages, more than the amount of the penalty, and usually much less.

In all these cases, the general test by which to Can compensacertain whether relief can or cannot be had in equity, sation be is to consider whether compensation can or cannot be made. If compensation can be made, then if the If it can, penalty is to secure the mere payment of money, courts equity relieves. of equity will relieve the party upon his paying the principal and interest (b). And if the penalty is to secure the performance of some collateral act or undertaking, the court will ascertain the amount of damages and grant relief on payment thereof (c).

⁽a) Sloman v. Walter, 2 L. C. 1112.(b) Elliott v. Turner, 13 Sim. 477.

⁽c) Daniell's Ch. Pr. 1510-1512.

Party cannot avoid the conthe penalty.

Although equity will generally relieve against a tract by paying penalty, where it is only intended to secure the performance of a contract; on the other hand, it will not permit the party bound by the agreement to avoid that agreement by paying the stipulated penalty. general rule of equity," observes Lord St. Leonards, in French v. Macale (d), "is, that if a thing be agreed to be done, though there is a penalty annexed to its performance, yet the very thing itself must be done" (e).

French v. Macale,-Where covenantor may do either of two things, paying higher for one alternative than the other, that is not a case of penalty.

Where, however, upon the construction of the contract, the real intent of the contract is that a covenantor should have either of two alternative modes of user at his option,—that if he elects to adopt one of those alternatives, he is to pay a certain sum of money, but that, if he chooses to adopt the other alternative, he is to pay an additional sum of money,—in such a case, equity will look upon the additional payment, not as a penalty, but as liquidated damages fixed on by the parties, and will not relieve the covenantor from payment of the additional sum agreed upon, in case he should do This distinction is taken such latter alternative act. by Lord St. Leonards, in the case of French v. Macale (f), where he lays down the law as follows:—"If a man covenant to abstain from doing a certain act, and agree that if he do it he will pay a sum of money, it would seem that he will be compelled to abstain from doing that act; he cannot elect to break his engagement by paying for his violation of the contract. . . . The question for the court to ascertain is, whether the party is restricted by covenant from doing the particular act, although, if he do it, a payment is reserved: or whether, according to the true construction of the contract, its meaning is, that the one party shall have

⁽d) 2 Drew. & War. 274.

⁽e) Howard v. Hopkyns, 2 Atk. 370.

⁽f) Ubi supra. See also Parfitt v. Chambre, L. R. 15 Ep. 36.

a right to do the act, on payment of what is agreed upon as an equivalent. If a man let meadow-land for two guineas an acre, and the contract is, that if the tenant choose to employ it in tillage, he may do so, paying an additional rent of two guineas an acre, no doubt this is a perfectly good and unobjectionable contract; the breaking-up the land is not inconsistent with the contract, which provides that in case the act is done the landlord is to receive an increased rent." Lord Rosslyn said of such a case as that (q), "that it was the demise of land to a lessee, to do with it as he thought proper; but if he used it in one way, he was to pay one rent, and if in another, another; that is a different case from an agreement not to do a thing, with a penalty for doing it "(h).

Having premised the above general remarks, it is Rules as to proposed to lay down a few rules which may aid the distinction between a student in arriving at a solution of the question, whether penalty and liquidated a sum mentioned in an agreement to be paid for a damages. breach, is to be treated as a penalty, or as liquidated and ascertained damages :-

- I. Where the payment of a smaller sum is secured 1. Smaller by a larger, the sum agreed for must always be con-sum secured by sidered as a penalty (i).
- 2. Where a deed contains covenants, or an agree-2. Covenant to ment contains provisions, for the performance of several things, and acts, and then a sum is stated at the end to be paid one sum for breach of any upon the breach of any or of all such stipulations, and or all. that sum will be in some instances too large, and in others too small a compensation for the injury occasioned, that sum is to be considered as a penalty.

⁽g) Hardy v. Martin, I Cox. 27.
(h) Herbert v. Salisbury & Yeovil Railway Company, L. R. 2 Eq. 221. (i) Astley v. Weldon, 2 B. & P. 350-354; Aylet v. Dodd, 2 Atk. 239.

Kemble v. Farren,-a case in which penal sum was declared not penal but liquidated, and yet court relieved.

Thus, in Kemble v. Farren (j), the defendant had engaged to act as principal comedian at Covent Garden for four seasons, conforming in all things to the rules of the The plaintiff was to pay the defendant £3, 6s. 8d. every night the theatre was open, with other The agreement contained a clause, that if either of the parties should neglect or refuse to fulfil the said agreement, or any part thereof, or any stipulation therein contained, such party should pay to the other the sum of £1000, to which sum it was thereby agreed that the damages sustained by such omission should amount, and which sum was thereby declared by the parties to be liquidated and ascertained damages, and not a penalty or penal sum or in the nature thereof. The breach alleged was, that the defendant refused to act during the second season. Notwithstanding these sweeping words, the court decided that the sum must be taken to be a penalty, as it was not limited to those breaches which were of an uncertain nature and amount. Tindal, C. J., said, "that a very large sum should become immediately payable, in consequence of the non-payment of a very small sum, and that the former should not be considered a penalty, appears to be a contradiction in terms " (k).

3. Where amount of injury cannot be measured.

- 3. On the other hand, if there be a contract consisting of one or more stipulations, the damages from the breach of which cannot be measured, then the contract must be taken to have meant that the sum agreed on was to be liquidated damages, and not a penalty (1).
- 4. If only one
- 4. There never was any doubt that if there be only

⁽j) 6 Bing. 141. (b) Mayne on Dam. 3d ed. 192; Davies v. Penton, 6 B. & C. 223; Horner v. Flintoff, 9 M. & W. 681; 3 Byth. & Jarm. Conv. by Sweet. 325; Dimech v. Corlett, 12 Moo. P. C. C. 199.
(l) Mayne on Dam. 3d ed. 129; Atkyns v. Kinnier, 4 Exch. 776-783; Galsworthy v. Strutt, 1 Exch. 659.

one event upon which the money is to become payable, event on and there is no adequate means of ascertaining the is to be pay. precise damage that may result to the plaintiff from able and no means of asthe breach of the contract, it is perfectly competent to certaining the parties to fix a given amount of compensation in damage. order to avoid the difficulty (m).

5. The mere use of the term "penalty," or "liqui- 5. The mere dated damages," does not determine the intention of "penalty," or the parties, that the sum stipulated should really be "liquidated damages," what it is said to be; but it is like any other question not conclusive. of construction, to be determined by the nature of the A question of construction. provisions, and the language of the whole instrument (n).

6. Where the expressions are doubtful or contra-6. Court leans dictory, the court, it seems, will lean in favour of the struing sum as construction which treats the sum named as a penalty a penalty. only, and not as fixing the measure of the damages, such construction being most consonant with justice (o). But the mere largeness of the amount fixed will not per se be sufficient reason for holding it to be a penalty (p).

The same general principles, which apply to equitable Forfeitures relief against penalties, govern the courts of equity in same prinrelieving against forfeitures,—at least in cases other ciples as penalties, than those arising under leases and other strict con-excepting as tracts (q). And even in the case of leases, equity will lords and interfere to a limited extent to relieve against a for-tenants. feiture. Thus, equity will relieve against the forfeiture

⁽m) Sainter v. Ferguson, 7 C. B. 730; Sparrow v. Paris, 8 Jur. N. S. 391; Byth. & Jarm. Conv. by Sweet, 326; Mayne on Dam. 3d ed.

⁽n) Dimech v. Corlett, 12 Moo. P. C. C. 199; Green v. Price, 13 M. & W. 701; 16 M. & W. 346; Jones v. Green, 3 You. & J. 304.
(o) Davies v. Penton, 6 B. & C. 216.
(p) Astley v. Weldon, 2 B. & P. 351.
(q) Cooper v. L. B. & S. C. Ry. Co., 4 Exch. Div. 88.

of a lease for non-payment of rent, on the lessee paying what is due (r),—that being a mere money demand.

Forfeiture for breach of covenant to repair.

It seems not quite settled whether equity will (and the better opinion is, that equity cannot) relieve against a forfeiture arising from a breach of covenant to repair, or, in fact, any breach of covenant other than the breach of covenant to pay rent, unless under very special circumstances (s). Equity will, however, require the covenantee to be satisfied with a substantial performance on the part of the covenantor, where the nature of the covenant admits of such performance. But if the contract be such that the court cannot secure its substantial performance, or where it is of the very essence of the contract, that it should be strictly performed (in which case, the strict performance is matter of substance and not of form merely), equity will not relieve against a forfeiture for non-performance (t).

Breach of covenant to insure.

The courts of equity could not relieve a tenant from forfeiture for breach of a covenant to insure (u). "Lord Eldon laid it down that the court would not relieve against breaches of covenant except in cases where payment of money is a complete compensation, and will put the party in the same situation as he would have been if there had been no breach. In this case the landlord could not by any payment of money be put into the same situation, as he was entitled to be under This rule having been found to operate the covenant."

(u) Green v. Bridges, 4 Sim. 96.

⁽r) Freem. Ch. Rep. 114. The common law courts may now relieve in such a case, 15 & 16 Vict., c. 76, ss. 210-212; 23 & 24 Vict., c. 126, s. 1; Bowser v. Colby, 1 Hare, 126.
(8) Hill v. Barclay, 18 Ves. 62.

⁽t) Hill v. Barclay, 16 Ves. 402; 18 Ves. 62; Gregory v. Wilson, 9 Hare, 683; Nokes v. Gibbon, 3 Drew. 681; Bamford v. Creasy, 3 Giff. 675; Croft v. Goldsmid, 24 Beav. 312.

very hardly on those few lessees who inadvertently and not wilfully neglected to insure, the legislature stepped in and remedied it, but in the case of such inadvertent neglects only. Under 22 & 23 Vict., c. 35, 22 & 23 Vict., s. 4, the court of equity is in that case entitled to c. 35. relieve against a forfeiture for non-insurance, but only upon a full compliance with the particulars in the Act expressed, and which are,—that no damage from fire shall, in the meantime, have happened, and that the inadvertence has been purged by the effecting of a proper fire-insurance before coming for relief (v). And similar jurisdiction has been conferred upon the courts 23 & 24 Vict., of common law, by the Common Law Procedure Act c. 126. of 1860 (w). Of course, now, since the Judicature Acts, 1873-75, law and equity have equal powers in all matters

⁽v) Page v. Bennett, 2 Giff. 117. (w) 23 & 24 Vict., c. 126, ss. 2, 3.

CHAPTER XXI.

MARRIED WOMEN.

SECT. I.—SEPARATE ESTATE.
SECT. II.—PIN-MONEY AND PARAPHERNALIA.
SECT. III.—EQUITY TO A SETTLE-

MENT AND RIGHT OF SURVI-VORSHIP. SECT. IV.—SETTLEMENTS IN DERO-GATION OF MARITAL RIGHTS.

In no respect do the rules of equity show a more complete divergence from those of the common law than on the subject of the rights and liabilities of married women.

Rights of feme covert at common law.

The husband takes all her property as a general rule. By the common law the husband on marrying becomes entitled to receive the rents and profits of the wife's real estates during the joint lives (a); he becomes absolutely entitled to all her chattels personal in possession (b), and to her choses in action if he reduce them into possession during the coverture (c); or if he do not, but survive her, he (d), and after his death his administrator (e), on taking out administration to the wife, is entitled to recover. He also becomes entitled jure mariti to her legal chattels real, i.e., leaseholds, with full power to aliene them even though

 ⁽a) Polyblank v. Hawkins, Doug. 329; Moore v. Vinten, 12 Sim. 161.
 (b) Co. Litt. 300 α.

⁽c) Scauen v. Blunt, 7 Ves. 294; Wildman v. Wildman, 9 Ves. 174; Co. Litt. 351.

⁽d) Betts v. Kimpton, 2 B. & Ad. 277; Proudley v. Fielder, 2 My. & K. 57.

⁽e) In the goods of Harding, L. R. 2 P. & D. 394.

reversionary (f); though, if he die before his wife without having reduced into possession her choses in action (g), or without having aliened her chattels real (h), they will survive to her.

The husband acquires this interest in the property In consideof his wife in consideration of the obligation, which ration of maintaining upon marriage he contracts, of maintaining her. while the courts of common law were thus active in less at comenforcing the rights of the husband, they rather over-mon law. did matters, and frequently to the detriment of the wife; for they gave her no remedy whatever in case even of the husband's refusing or neglecting to fulfil the duties cast upon him by the marriage, or in the case of the husband's bankruptcy or insolvency. In all these cases, therefore, a married woman resorting to the common law might have been left utterly destitute, no matter how large a fortune she might have brought to her husband on marriage. Can it be a matter of surprise, therefore, that equity, holding that there should be no wrong without a remedy. found ample ground for its interference, and raised up, with reference to married women, a system founded on Interference justice and right, and utterly in contravention of the of equity. doctrines of the common law.

So beneficial has this equitable jurisdiction proved Married Women's to be, and so much in harmony with the requirements Property Act, of modern society, that it has at length received a vict., c. 93), legislative sanction. By the Married Women's Pro- and amending perty Act, 1870, amended by the Married Women's Property Act, 1874, a feme covert is enabled to obtain a legal title to certain classes of property, and to protect the same by independent proceedings in courts of law, in the same manner as a feme sole.

Act, 1874.

⁽f) Donne v. Hart, 2 Russ. & My. 363; Bales v. Dandy, 2 Atk. 207; 3 Russ. 72 n. (g) Co. Litt. 351 b. (h) Ibid.

Protective jurisdiction of Court of Chancery.

It is proposed to consider the original jurisdiction of the Court of Chancery regarding married women, which still continues in its entirety, though with a scope widened in certain instances by the recent legislation, and incidentally to explain the effect of such recent legislation.

SECTION I.—THE WIFE'S SEPARATE ESTATE.

Feme covert mon law hold from her husband. But she may do so in equity.

At common law the separate existence of the wife cannot at com- is not, as a general rule, known or contemplated, it property apart being considered merged by the coverture in that of the husband, and the wife being no more recognised than is the cestui que trust or the mortgagor; the legal estate, which is the only interest the law recognises, being in others (i). She is not permitted by the common law to take or enjoy any real or personal estate separate from and independently of her husband. But in equity, whose creature the wife's separate estate is (i), the case is widely different. There a married woman is considered capable of possessing property to her own use, independently of her husband; and upon once being permitted to hold property to her separate use as a feme sole, she takes it with all its privileges and incidents, including the jus disponendi (k).

Separate estate, how created.

The wife's separate estate may be created out of any species of property, and the modes in which it has been held that property may belong to her independently of her husband are various, being, however, principally the following :---

r. By antenuptial agree. ment.

I. The wife may hold separate estate by an antenuptial written agreement with the intended husband for that purpose; and such ante-nuptial agreement

⁽i) Murray v. Barlee, 3 My. & K. 220.

⁽j) Brandon v. Robinson, 18 Ves. 434.
(k) Fettiplace v. Gorges, 1 Ves. Jr. 48.

may be made with reference either to her own property, or to the property of her husband, or of third parties (l).

- 2. By special agreement with the husband after 2. By special marriage in certain cases (m), or where the husband agreement, deserts her, independently of and long prior to the or where he deserts her. stat. 20 & 21 Vict., c. 85 (n). Also, in more recent times, under the stat. 20 & 21 Vict., c. 85, s. 21, amended by the stat. 21 & 22 Vict., c. 108, s. 8, if a Statutory wife is deserted by her husband, she may obtain an enactments, as to separate order of protection of her property against her husband estate, previous to Marand his creditors; and by 20 & 21 Vict., c. 85, s. 25, ried Women's if judicially separated, she is to be deemed a feme sole Property Act, as regards her property; and in case of subsequent cohabitation, it shall be held to her separate use (o). And the separate estate may arise ever under a private Act of Parliament (p).
- 3. Gifts also from the husband to the wife may be 3. By gifts to made to her separate use, where they are made to her lutely from absolutely, and not merely to be worn as ornaments of husband. her person (q).
- 4. It seems also that a gift from a stranger by deli-4. By gifts to her from a very merely to the wife during her coverture, even stranger durthough not expressed to be for her separate use, would ing coverture. be for her separate use (r).

⁽¹⁾ Simmons v. Simmons, 6 Hare, 352; Tullett v. Armstrong, I Beav. 21.

⁽m) Haddon v. Fladgate, I Swab. & Tr. 48; Pride v. Bubb, L. R. 7

⁽n) Haddon V. Frankfer, I Shadi. 41. 45, I The V. Baos, H. H. 7 Ch. App. 64; Ashworth v. Outram, L. R. 5 Ch. Div. 923. (n) Cecil v. Juxon, 1 Atk. 278; Re Pope's Trusts, 21 W. R. 646; 2 Bright's Husb. & Wife, 299. (o) In re Rainsdon's Trusts, 4 Drew. 446; Rudge v. Weedon, 4 De

G. & Jo. 216, 223; Nicholson v. Drury Buildings, 7 Ch. Div. 48.
 (p) In re Peacock's Trusts, 10 Ch. Div. 490. (q) Graham v. Londonderry, 3 Atk. 393; Grant v. Grant, 13 W. R. 1057; Mews v. Mews, 15 Beav. 529; Baddeley v. Baddeley, 9 Ch. Div.

⁽r) Graham v. Londonderry, 3 Atk. 393; I Bright's Husb. & Wife, 289.

5. Wife trading separately.

5. A wife trading separately is entitled to the trade property as her separate estate (s).

By express limitation for that purpose. 6. The wife will, of course, hold all such property to her separate use as has been expressly limited to her by devise or otherwise for that purpose, whether before or after coverture; and this is probably the most frequent source of the separate estate of married women, or at all events was so before the Married Women's Property Acts, 1870 and 1874, hereinafter explained.

Interposition of trustees,—not necessary.

It was formerly supposed, that the interposition of trustees was in all arrangements of this sort, whether made before or after marriage, indispensable for the protection of the wife's rights and interests; in other words, it was deemed absolutely necessary that the property, of which the wife was to have the separate and exclusive use, should be vested in trustees for her benefit; and that the agreement of the husband should be made with such trustees, or at least with persons contracting with them for the wife's benefit. though in strict propriety that should always be done, yet it is now firmly established that the intervention of trustees is not indispensable; and that whenever real or personal property is devised to, or otherwise given to or settled upon, a married woman, either before or after marriage, for her separate and exclusive use, without the intervention of trustees, the intention of the parties shall be effectuated in equity, and the wife's interest protected against the rights and claims of her husband, and of his creditors also (t). such a case, the husband will be held a mere trustee for her (u).

Husband a trustee for wife.

⁽s) Ex parte Shepherd, in re Shepherd, 10 Ch. Div. 573.

⁽t) Newlands v. Paynter, 4 My. & Cr. 408. (u) Parker v. Brooke, 9 Ves. 583; Rich v. Cockell, 9 Ves. 375; St. 1380.

No particular form of words is necessary in order to What words vest property in a married woman for her separate use. held sufficient It has been held that the marital rights of the husband separate use. will be defeated if there is a gift or settlement of property to his wife or trustees for her, for her "sole and separate use" (v), "for her own use, and at her own disposal" (w), "for her own use, independent of her husband" (x), "for her own use and benefit, independent of any other person" (y), "that she should receive and enjoy the issue and profits "(z). As to the effect of a devise to a woman, "for her sole use and benefit," there seems to be some doubt upon the authorities. In Gilbert v. Lewis (a), Westbury, C., held that a devise to an unmarried woman without the intervention of trustees, for her sole use and benefit, did not give her a separate estate (b).

On the other hand, it is no less firmly established, What words that courts of equity will not deprive the husband of cient for that his rights at law, except by words which leave no doubt purpose. of the intention to exclude him. It has been held, therefore, that no separate use was created where there was a mere direction, "to pay to a married woman and her assigns" (c), or where there was a gift "to her own use and benefit" (d), or to her "absolute use" (e), or when payment was directed to be made "into her own proper hands, to and for her own use and benefit "(f), or when property was given "to be under her sole control " (q).

⁽v) Parker v. Brooke, 9 Ves. 583. (w) Inglefield v. Coghlan, 2 Coll. 247. (x) Wagstaff v. Smith, 9 Ves. 520. (y) Glover v. Hall, 16 Sim. 568.

⁽z) Tyrrell v. Hope, 2 Atk. 558. (a) I De G. Jo. & Sm. 38.

⁽b) In re Tarsey's Trusts, I L. R. Eq. 561.

⁽c) Lumb v. Milnes, 5 Ves. 517. (d) Kensington v. Dollond, 2 My. & K. 184. (e) Ex parte Abbot, 1 Deacon, 338. (f) Tyler v. Lake, 2 Russ. & My. 183. (g) Massey v. Parker, 2 My. & K. 174.

The wife's power of disposition over separate estate. The rule is laid down in *Peacock* v. *Monk* (h), "that a feme covert acting with respect to her separate property is competent to act in all respects as if she was a feme sole" (i). Where, however, the restriction on anticipation is annexed to the separate use, this power of disposition is taken away.

(a.) As to personalty.

(a.) It is decided, that personal property settled upon a *feme covert* for her separate use, is subject to all the incidents of property vested in persons $sui\ juris$, and that she may dispose of it without her husband's consent, whether by act *inter vivos* (j), or by will (k), and this power extends to interests in reversion, as well as to interests in possession (l); and her husband need not concur in the disposition, and the wife need not acknowledge same.

b.) As to realty.i. Life estate.

(b.) As to real estate, it is also determined, that when settled to the separate use of a married woman, she has the same power over her *life interest* therein, as she would have as a *feme sole*, and a contract to sell or mortgage that interest has been always specifically enforced against her (m).

2. Fee simple estates.

With regard to real property settled to the separate use of a *feme covert* in fee, it has always been perfectly well ascertained, that so far as regards the *legal* estate, she cannot dispose of that without the concurrence of the person or persons in whom that estate is vested (viz., of her husband or of other her trustees, as the case may be); but as regards the equitable estate it has finally, after much apparent conflict in the autho-

⁽h) 2 Ves. 190. (j) Wagstaff v. Smith, 9 Ves. 520.

⁽k) Fettiplace v. Gorges, 3 Bro. C. C. 8; In the goods of Smith, 1 Sw. & Tr. 125.

⁽l) Sturgis v. Corp, 13 Ves. 190; Lechmere v. Brotheridge, 32 Beav. 353.

⁽m) Stead v. Nelson, 2 Beav. 245; Major v. Lansley, 2 Russ. & My. 357.

rities, been decided in the important case of Taylor v. Meads (n), that she may dispose of the equitable estate either by will or by an instrument inter vivos not acknowledged under the Fines and Recoveries Act (o). And she has this power whether trustees are interposed or not (p). Even if trustees be interposed, it is now clear that a married woman can bind her separate property without their assent, unless that is rendered necessary by the instrument giving her the property (q). As to the question whether such disposition of her fee simple estates by deed or by will would deprive the husband surviving her of his curtesy estate, assuming that he would otherwise be entitled thereto, the law seems now to be fully settled; for although in the absence of, or subject to, any such disposition by the wife, the husband is entitled to his curtesy, yet in case the wife disposes of the whole estate by deed inter vivos, or even by will, the authorities have now fully and explicitly decided (inconsistently with the old rules of real property, but consistently enough with the equitable doctrine of the separate estate), that the husband is by such disposition wholly barred and excluded from his estate by the curtesy (r).

Upon the principle that a married woman as Separate proto her separate property is to be deemed a feme perty liable for her breach sole, she will render it liable by concurring with her of trust. Except retrustees in a breach of trust (s), or by herself commit-strained from ting a breach of trust in respect of other property anticipation.

⁽n) 34 L. J. Ch. 203; Pride v. Bubb, L. R. 7 Ch. App. 64.

⁽n) 34 L. J. Ch. 203; Frate v. Buov, E. R. 7 Ch. App. 64.

(o) 3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 74, s. 77.

(p) Hall v. Waterhouse, 13 W. R. 633.

(q) Essex v. Atkins, 14 Ves. 542; Hodgson v. Hodgson, 2 Kee. 704.

(r) Roberts v. Dixwell, 1 Atk. 607; Morgan v. Morgan, 5 Madd. 408; Appleton v. Rowley, L. R. 8 Eq. 139; Cooper v. M'Donald, L. R. 7

⁽s) Brewer v. Swirles, 2 Sm. & Giff. 219; Jones v. Higgins, L. R. 2 Eq. 538.

under the trust (t), unless she is restrained from anticipation (u).

The savings of income of separate estate are also separate estate.

If the wife, having property settled to her separate use, effect savings out of it, she has the same power and control over those savings as she had over the separate estate itself; for in the quaint language of Lord Keeper Cowper, "the sprout is to savour of the root and to go the same way" (v); or in less elegant words, the froth on the stout savours of the stout, and goes the same way; and if the wife have a power over the capital, she has also power over the income and accumulations (w); and the same rule applies to savings out of the income allowed to a married woman upon her husband's lunacy (x). And even the investments made with such savings or with the accumulations thereof belong still to the married woman for her separate use (y), a result which, however, does not appear to hold good for the investments of the capital moneys of the separate estate (z).

She may permit her husband to receive the income of her separate estate, even though restrained from anticipation.

"A wife having property settled for her separate use is entitled to deal with the money as she pleases. she directly authorises the money to be paid to her husband, he is entitled to receive it, and she can never recall it. . . . If the husband and wife living together, have for a long time so dealt with the separate income of the wife, as to show that they must have agreed that it should come to the hands of the husband, to be used by him (of course, for their joint purposes), that would amount to evidence of a direc-

⁽t) Clive v. Carew, I J. & H. 199.

⁽u) Davies v. Hodgson, 25 Beav. 186; Pemberton v. M'Gill, 1 Drew. & Sm. 266; Stanley v. Stanley, 26 W. R. 310; 7 Ch. Div. 589.

⁽v) Gore v. Knight, 2 Vern. 535. (w) Newlands v. Paynter, 4 My. & Cr. 408; Humphrey v. Richards, 2 Jur. N. S. 432.

⁽x) Re Sharp, 3 Pub. Div. 76.

⁽y) Barrack v. M. Culloch, 3 Kay & J. 110. (z) Wright v. Wright, 2 J. & H. 647, stated infra in this section.

tion on her part that the separate income, which she otherwise would be entitled to, should be received by him" (a); and even in cases where she is entitled to In any case, an account against him for such receipts, the general she is entitled to only one rule seems to be, that he shall be obliged to account year's account. for one year's receipts only (b). But as regards the capital or corpus of the separate estate, the wife may dispose of same to her husband, only if she is not restrained from anticipation.

If a feme covert, having personal estate settled to her Husband takes separate use, die without disposing of it, the husband separate personal estate will be entitled to it; and all those parts thereof that undisposed of. consist of cash, furniture, or other personal chattels, or of chattels real (c), he will take in his marital right Jure mariti. (d), and all such parts therof as consist of "choses in action," he will be entitled to take as her adminis- or as her trator (e), and in either case for his the husband's own administrator. benefit, although as regards the choses in action (and, quaere, also as regards the property which he takes jure mariti) subject to his wife's debts.

Although a man having a general power of appoint- Property ment over property, which in default of appointment, subject to a general power goes to others, by exercising his power makes the of appointment. appointed property assets for payment of his debts, in an administration of his estate after his death (f), yet it has been held, that if a married woman exercises such a power, the appointed property will not be applicable to the payment of her debts in such an administration of her estate.

⁽a) Caton v. Rideout, I Mac. & G. 601; Rowley v. Unwin, 2 K. &

J. 138; Dixon v. Dixon, 9 Ch. Div. 587.
(b) Lewin Tr. 549; Peachey on Settlements, 291; but see Darkin v.

Darkin, 17 Beav. 578.
(c) Co. Litt. 46 b.; Dyer, 251.
(d) Molony v. Kennedy, 10 Sim. 254; Johnstone v. Lumb 15 Sim. 308.

⁽e) Proudley v. Fielder, 2 My. & K. 57.

Differences between separate property and general power of appointment in a married woman. (a.) Separate property not recognised at common law. But married woman's right to execute a power of appointment recognised both at law and in equity.

(b.) Feme covert cannot contract a debt to bind her appointment secus, as regards her separate property, seeinfra.

In case of her fraud, her property generally being liable, a fund appointed by her under a general power is also liable. as in London CharteredBank v. Lempriere,the power of appointment is rather an than a power additional to it.

This distinction is based upon the difference between property and power. A power of appointment in a married woman is a very different thing from property itself, even when settled to her separate Separate use is purely a creature of equity, and utterly unknown to the common law; whereas, that a married woman has the right and capacity to exercise a power of appointment, is as much the doctrine of a court of law, as it is of a court of equity. necessary she should be regarded as a feme sole in order to do that.

And although in equity she is a feme sole as regards her separate estate, and may contract by express agreement a debt payable out of that property, she property; but cannot, it was said, by mere contract, incur a debt payable out of her property, over which she has a mere power of appointment, because she cannot contract a debt except to the extent of such property as is settled to her separate use; therefore her ordinary creditors have no right to be paid out of the fund which she appointed (g). But, notwithstanding the incapacity of a married woman to incur a debt merely by contract, yet it is well established that a married woman is capable of committing a fraud. and is liable to be visited with the consequences of the commission of such fraud (h); that by fraud at least where, she renders her general property liable; and further. that, if it be insufficient, then, as in the case of a feme sole, or a man, the appointed fund becomes liable to supply any deficiency (i). The doctrine that property subject to a married woman's power of incident of the appointment is not liable for the debts, appears to have been considerably modified.

⁽g) Shattock v. Shattock, L. R. 2 Eq. 186.

⁽h) Savage v. Foster, 9 Mod. 35; Blain v. Terryberry, 11 Gr. 286.
(i) Vaughan v. Vanderstegen, 2 Drew. 165, 363; Shattock v. Shattock, L. R. 2 Eq. 182.

if not entirely overruled, by the decision of the Privy Council in the recent case of The London Chartered Bank of Australia v. Lempriere (j). Mrs. Aitkin was entitled to large personal estate, settled to her separate use with remainder as she should by will or deed appoint. She was not restrained from anticipation. At the request of her bankers she gave them a letter, charging her interest (which was comprised in the settlement) in a fund standing to her credit as administratrix of her late husband, as a security for overdrafts on her private banking account. Mrs. Aitkin subsequently made her will in execution of the power, and died largely indebted on her private account, whereupon a suit was brought to charge her interest in the fund. The cases of Vaughan v. Vanderstegen and Shattock v. Shattock were cited to show that the corpus could not be liable, but James, L. J., in delivering the judgment of the court, decided in favour of the Bank. His Lordship there said,—"In the present case it is to be noted that the gift is to the married woman for her separate use for life, with remainder as she should, notwithstanding her coverture, by deed or will appoint, with remainder to her executors or administrators. Their Lordships are satisfied that on the weight of authority and on principle they ought to treat this as what it is in common sense, and to common apprehension it would be, an absolute gift to the sole and separate use of the lady. The words are an expansion and expression of what would be implied in the words sole and separate use; and their Lordships conceive themselves at liberty to hold that such a form of gift to a married woman, without any restriction on anticipation, vests in equity the entire corpus in her for all purposes, as fully as a similar gift to a man would vest it in him." It will be ob-

⁽j) R. L. 4 P. C. 572.

served that in this case the power of appointment, which was by deed or will, had been exercised by will, though on the grounds of the decision as above cited it would appear that actual execution of the power was not necessary to render the fund liable to satisfy the claim of the Bank. In the similar case of Heatley v. Thomas (k), cited with approval in the judgment, the power was exercisable by will only.

Though generally regarded as a feme sole in equity as to her separate estate. she could not originally bind her separate estate with debts.

Although from an early period, courts of equity had so far departed from the settled rules of law with respect to a feme covert, as to admit of property being settled in trust for her separate use, and had established the principle that with respect to property so settled, she should be considered a feme sole, quoad the capacity of enjoying and the capacity of disposing of that property; it is remarkable how long and steadily they refused to grant to her the other capacity of a feme sole, that of contracting debts binding upon It might very reasonably be considered, that consistency required that she should have that capacity to the same extent that she was constituted a feme sole. After a time, however, being pressed by the injustice of allowing her, after having solemnly and deliberately entered into an engagement for the payment of money, to continue in the enjoyment of her separate property without paying her creditors, the courts, at first, ventured so far as to hold, that if she made a contract (2.) By bill or for payment of money by a written instrument, with a certain degree of formality and solemnity, as by a bond under her hand and seal (1), in that case, the property settled to her separate use should be made liable to the payment of it; and this principle, if principle it could be called, was subsequently extended to instruments of a less formal character, such as to bills

Successive relaxations of this rule. (I.) Her separate estate was bound by an instrument under seal.

(3.) By ordinary written agreement.

⁽k) 15 Ves. 596.

⁽¹⁾ Hulme v. Tenant, I L. C. 525; Heatley v. Thomas, 15 Ves. 596.

of exchange (m), or promissory-notes (n), and ultimately to any written agreement (o).

But still the courts refused to extend it to a verbal (4.) And last agreement, or other common assumpsit; and even as afinal struggle, to those more formal engagements which they did hold hard parol or to be payable out of the separate estate, they struggled simple conagainst the notion of their being regarded as debts, and for that purpose they invented reasons to justify the application of the separate estate to their payment, without recognising them as debts, or letting in verbal contracts. One suggestion was, that the act of disposing of, or charging, separate estate by a married woman, was in reality the execution of a power of appointment, and that a formal and solemn instrument in writing would operate as an execution of the power, which a mere assumpsit would not do (p). The fallacy of this reasoning has been repeatedly exposed, and it has been truly observed: -- 1st, that it confounds two things Erroneously which are quite distinct in their nature,—power and held that charging the separate use; 2d, that even supposing the act of dis-separate estate was posing of separate estate by a married woman to be executing a regarded as the execution of a power, the reason pointment. assigned violated the principle long established with respect to powers, that a power could not be executed Power and by an instrument which did not refer either to the perty conpower itself, or to the property which was the subject founded,—although of it; and 3d, that if there be several of such instrudifferent, because,—ments, and they are to be regarded as successive executions of a power, the appointees would rank in the date (c.) Appointees of the order of their appointments, whereas it is held rank in order that where the persons claiming under such instruments of time, while

⁽m) Stuart v. Kirkwall, 3 Mad. 387; Owen v. Homan, 4 H. L. Cas. 997; M'Henry v. Davies, L. R. 10 Eq. 88.

(n) Bullpin v. Clarke, 17 Ves. 365; Field v. Sowle, 4 Russ. 112.

(o) Master v. Fuller, I Ves. Jr. 513; Murray v. Barlee, 3 My. & K. 209; Picard v. Hine, L. R. 5 Ch. App. 274.

(p) Murray v. Barlee, 3 My. & K. 223; Owens v. Dickenson, I Cr. & Pb. 53.

separate estate take pari passu.

are let in upon the separate property of the party executing them, they must stand pari passu. reason suggested was, that as a married woman has the right and capacity specifically to charge her separate estate, the execution by her of a formal written instrument must be held to indicate an intention to create such special charge, because otherwise it could not have any operation (q).

Courts now hold that to the same extent that she is regarded as may contract debts.

The inconsistency of drawing this distinction between the different engagements of a married woman having separate estate, with reference to the different forms in a feme sole, she which they are contracted, together with the unsatisfactory character of the reasons assigned to justify such distinction, has forced itself more and more on the attention of successive judges; and a growing tendency has been manifested to adopt a more consistent course, by holding, 1st, That to the same extent to which a married woman is, by courts of equity, constituted a feme sole with respect to the capacity of disposing of property, she ought also to be regarded as a feme sole with respect to the capacity of contracting debts, or engagements in the nature of debts; and 2d, As a corollary of the former, that all such debts or engagements should stand on the same footing, in whatever form contracted (r). And, in fact, it may now be considered as settled, that her separate estate may be rendered liable on an assumpsit or verbal engagement. For Kindersley, V.-C., in Matthewman's case (s), says:— "It clearly is not necessary that the contract should be in writing, because it is now admitted that if a married woman enters into a verbal engagement, expressly making her estate liable, such contract would

Her verbal engagements now binding on her separate estate.

⁽q) Murray v. Barlee, 3 My. & K. 223.

⁽r) Vaughan v. Vanderstegen, 2 Drew. 182. (s) L. R. 3 Eq. 787; see also Mayd v. Field, L. R. 3 Ch. Div. 587; Davies v. Jenkins, L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 728; Collett v. Dickenson, W. N. 1879, 80.

bind it; nor is it necessary that there should be an express reference made to the fact of there being such separate estate, for a bond or promissory-note given by a married woman, without any mention of her separate estate, has long been held sufficient to make her separate estate liable (t), provided she be not restrained from anticipation (u). If the circumstances are such as to lead to the conclusion that she was contracting not for her husband, but for herself, in respect of her separate estate, that separate estate will be liable to satisfy the obligation."

The court can make no personal decree against a No personal married woman (v), because, semble, that would be inter- a feme covert. fering with the husband's property in her person; therefore, no bankruptcy decree or order for her imprisonment under the Bankruptcy Act, 1869, or the Debtors' Act, 1869, can be made against her (w). The extent of the relief afforded by equity against the separate estate of a feme covert is thus laid down by Lord Thurlow in Hulme v. Tenant (x): "Determined General encases seem to go thus far, that the general engagement $_{\rm bind-the}^{\rm gagements}$ of the wife shall operate upon her personal property corpus of her personalty shall apply to the rents and profits of her real estate. rents and . . . I know of no case where the general engagement realty. of the wife has been carried to the extent of decreeing that the trustees of her real estate shall make conveyance of that real estate, and by sale, mortgage, or otherwise, raise the money to satisfy that general engagement on the part of the wife (y). But, of course, the Execution against creditors may have execution against both the real and separate

⁽t) L. J. Turner's remarks in Johnson v. Gallagher, 3 De G. F. & Jo. 494.

⁽u) Atwood v. Chichester, 3 Q. B. Div. 722.
(v) Francis v. Wigzell, I Mad. 264.
(w) Johnson v. Gallacher, 30 L. J. Ch. 29S; and especially Ex parte Holland, in re Heneuge, L. R. 9 Ch. App. 307; Ex parte Shepherd, in re Shepherd, 10 Ch. Div. 573; Ex parte Jones, in re Grissell, W. N. 1879, p. 144.

⁽x) I L. C. 526. (y) Francis v. Wigzell, I Mad. 258; Aylett v. Ashton, I My. & Cr. 105, 112.

Bill for administration of separate estate.

the personal estate of the married woman during her life; and after her death they may file a bill against her representatives for the administration of her separate estate, which will be treated as equitable assets (z).

Origin of restraint on anticipation.

It has been seen that when first property was permitted to be settled to the separate use of a married woman, equity viewed her as a feme sole to the extent of having dominion over the property. It was, however soon found that this concession to the requirements of justice, though useful and operative in securing to her a dominion over the estate so devoted to her support, was open to the difficulty, that she being at liberty to dispose of it (as a feme sole might have disposed of it) was nevertheless left exposed to the persuasion or other mode of influence of her husband, which was often found to defeat the very purpose for which her separate property was given her. therefore, this further difficulty, a provision was adopted of prohibiting the anticipation of the income, so that the wife should have no dominion over it till the payments actually became due (a). And this mode of settlement was supported on the following reasoning: -That separate estate is purely a creature of equity, devised for the protection of married women, and that being such, equity has a right to act upon its own creature. and to modify it so as to further the object for which separate estate was first created (b). It was for some time thought that a similar fetter might be imposed on property enjoyed by men, without relation to A man or feme the married state, but Lord Eldon, in Brandon v. Robinson (c), decided that in the case of disposition to a man, the jus disponendi cannot be taken away from him by a mere prohibition against alienation.

Feme covert prohibited against taking the income before actually due.

sole cannot be so prohibited.

⁽z) Owens v. Dickenson, I Cr. & Ph. 48; Gregory v. Lockyer, 6 Madd.

⁽a) Pybus v. Smith, 3 Bro. C. C. 339. (b) Tullett v. Armstrong, I Beav. 22.

⁽c) 18 Ves. 429.

The fact is, that any such attempted restraint on alienation in the case of a man would be void for inconsistency or repugnancy; but the restraint on anticipation is consistent with and in furtherance of the very object of the separate estate of a married woman, and so can be (and has been) permitted to be good. But for this consistency of the two, equity could not have permitted the device of restraint to succeed; for, of course, equity cannot, any more than law, make valid what is void in se for repugnancy.

The power of courts of equity to impose restraints The restraint attaches to upon the alienation by married women of their sepa-future coverrate property having been established, the question tures. next arose as to whether these restraints were to be confined to an actually existing coverture, or might be extended to take effect upon a future marriage. After some wavering of opinion, it was eventually determined in Tullett v. Armstrong (d), that the restriction attached to a subsequent marriage. The Master of the Rolls, in that case, lays down the following general propositions on the nature and effect of the clause in General rules. restraint of anticipation:-

"If the gift be made for her sole and separate use (1.) She has a without more, she has, during her coverture, an alien-jus disponendi able estate independent of her husband.

separate property.

"If the gift be made for her sole and separate use, (2.) If rewithout power to alienate, she has, during the cover-strained, she is entitled to the ture, the present enjoyment of an unalienable estate present enjoyindependent of her husband.

ment exclusively.

"In either of these cases she has, when discovert, (3.) Separate a power of alienation; the restraint is annexed to the estate with separate estate only, and the separate estate has its exist- restraint exists ence only, during coverture; whilst the woman is clis-coverture.

⁽d) I Beav. I; and see In re Ridley, Buckton v. Hay, 10 Ch. Div. 645.

(4.) Restraint on alienation depends on, and is a modification of, separate estate—and has no independent existence.

covert, the separate estate, whether modified by restraint or not, is suspended and has no operation, though it is capable of arising upon the happening of a marriage. The restriction cannot be considered distinctly from the separate estate, of which it is only a modification; to say that the restriction exists is saying no more than that the separate estate is so modified. . . . If there be no separate estate, there can be no such restriction as that which is now under consideration. The separate estate may, and often does, exist without the restriction, but the restriction has no independent existence; when found, it is a modification of the separate estate, and inseparable from it" (e).

General conclusion.

It seems to result briefly from the preceding quotation, as follows:—First, That while a spinster, the female entitled for her separate estate, without power of anticipation, may anticipate the entirety or any part of her estate; but that immediately upon her marriage (No. 1), the separate estate, and with it the restraint on anticipation, attach and endure during that coverture; and that upon her widowhood (No. 1) both the separate estate and the restraint dis-attach; and again upon her subsequent marriage (No. 2), and subsequent widowhood (No. 2), and so on totics quotics, attaching and dis-attaching, and re-attaching and again dis-attaching, according as she is covert or not from time to time, and for the time being.

In what cases the trust will be wholly destroyed, so as not to attach on marriage. Inasmuch as a woman, when discovert, has full power of alienation over her separate estate, even though coupled with a restraint against anticipation or alienation, the question sometimes arises, whether the lady has not, by her intervening acts during discoverture, acquired the property unfettered or unrestricted by any trust or restraint, so that neither would attach

⁽e) Woodmeston v. Walker, 2 Russ. & My. 197.

or re-attach upon her marriage, as they would have done in the absence of such acts. Thus, in Wright v. Wright (f), stock was bequeathed to a woman upon trust for her separate use, without power of anticipation, but without the intervention of trustees; she afterwards, being discovert and sui juris, sold the stock, spent a portion of the proceeds, and invested the rest in shares of a joint-stock bank and Canada bonds. Held, that by doing so she had determined the trust for her separate use. Wood, V.-C., said :-- "Had she allowed the property to remain in statu quo, had If property she left it until her marriage in the form of investment statu quo, in which it was bequeathed to her by her parents, husband must then according to Newlands v. Paynter (g), the husband the trusts immust have been considered as adopting the property in it. the state in which they left it, and subject to the trusts that, while in that state, they had impressed upon it. But she did not leave it in that form; having the sole But if she sell ownership of the property, and being single and sui it, and receive juris, she sold it and received the purchase-money. money, the trust is de-When the property was in her hands as money, it was stroyed. absolutely hers, as if it had never been fettered by any trust whatever. By selling the property, she disposed of it finally and entirely (h).

The effect of disposing of the corpus here stated is, of course, to be distinguished from the effect already stated in a previous page of disposing of the savings of income in the purchase of investments, and the subsequent variation of such investments (i). It has been held that a married woman, although restrained from anticipation, may bar an estate tail (j), or accept pay-

⁽f) 2 J. & H. 647. (g) 4 My. & Cr. 408. (h) Buttanshaw v. Martin, Johns. 89. (i) Barrack v. M'Culloch, 3 Kay. & J. 110. (j) Cooper v. Macdonald, 7 Ch. Div. 288.

ment out of court (k), neither of these acts involving any anticipation.

What words will restrain alienation,-

As in the case of the separate use, so in the case of the restraint on anticipation, no particular form of words Field v. Evans. is necessary to restrain alienation, if the intention be Thus, when property was settled, and it was directed that the trustee should, during the lady's life, receive the income "when and as often as the same should become due," and pay it to such persons as she might from time to time appoint, or to permit her to receive it for her separate use; and that her receipts, or the receipts of any person to whom she might appoint the same after it should become due, should be valid discharges for it; it was held that she was restrained from anticipating the income (l). So also where property is given to the separate use of a married woman, "not to be sold or mortgaged," she will take with a restraint or alienation (m).

What words will not restrain alienation,—Parkes v. White.

On the other hand, where a testator bequeathed a sum of stock in trust for the separate use of his wife for her life, and directed that it "should remain during her life, and be, under the orders of the trustees, made a duly administered provision for her, and the interest given to her on her personal appearance and receipt," by any banker the trustees might appoint, it was held that the widow, who had married again, was not restrained from alienating her interest in the stock (n). Where expressions are used giving the wife a right to receive separate property "with her own hands from time to time," or so that her receipts "alone, for what should be actually "paid into her own proper hands, should "be good discharges," they are, to use the

⁽k) In re Crompton's Trusts, 8 Ch. Div. 460. (1) Field v. Evans, 15 Sim. 375; Baker v. Bradley, 7 De G. M. & G. 597-

⁽m) Steedman v. Poole, 6 Ha. 193; Baggett v. Meux, I Coll. 138. (n) In re Ross's Trust, I Sim. N. S. 196.

words of Lord Eldon, only an unfolding of all that is implied in a gift to the separate use (o).

But although it be true that these cases of separate court of uses and restraints are mere "creatures of equity," still equity cannot dispense with it does not follow that a court of equity can dispense the fetter on alienation. with or mould either of them, especially the restraints, as, and when, it thinks fit, any more than it could do so with other executed trusts. Accordingly, where a testator gave a legacy to a married woman upon this condition, that within twelve months she should execute a certain conveyance of her separate estate which was subject to a restraint against anticipation, it was held that the court had no power to release the property from that restraint, even though it should be clearly for her benefit (p). But the court may of course do so under the provisions of an Act of Parliament for the purposes of the Act (q).

Such being the rights and liabilities of married Married women, arising from the equitable doctrine of separate Women's Property Act, estate, it remains to consider their position under Vict., c. 93. the Married Women's Property Act, 1870, and the amending Act of 1874. By the Act of 1870, which came into operation on the 9th of August 1870, the principles which had proved so beneficial, as applied in courts of equity, have been recognised and adopted, at the same time that increased powers for the acquisition and protection of separate property have been conferred. Not only have new classes of separate property been created, and facilities for its investment been given, but a feme covert is now enabled to take proceedings, both at law and in equity, for the protec-

⁽o) Parkes v. White, 11 Ves. 222; Acton v. White, 1 Sim. & St. 429;

Rose v. Sharrod, 11 W. R. 356.

(p) Robinson v. Wheelwright, 21 Beav. 214; 6 De G. M. & G. 535; Gaskell's Trusts, 11 Jur. N. S. 780; but see Sanger v. Sanger, L. R. 11 Eq. 470, decided under 33 & 34 Vict., c. 93, s. 12.

(q) Leases and Sales of Settled Estates Act, 1877, s. 50.

tion of her property, freed from the disabilities heretofore attaching to coverture, without losing, as it appears, except in certain cases specified by the Act (r), her previous position of immunity from adverse legal proceedings.

Distinction between statuable separate property.

In considering the provisions of the Act, it will be tory and equit. necessary to bear in mind the distinction between statutory separate property, declared to be such by the Act, and separate property which does not owe its character as such to the Act, and therefore remains within the jurisdiction of courts of equity only. appears that the former class alone carries with it the legal powers and privileges conferred by the Act; but it is apprehended that both classes are equally subject to the new liabilities, now imposed upon women, in respect of their separate property (s).

Statutory separate proearnings of all married women, acquired after the passing of the Act; and investments thereof.

By section I, it is enacted that the wages and earnings of any married woman, acquired or gained by perty. (r.) Wages and her, after the passing of the Act, in any employment, occupation, or trade, in which she is engaged, or which she carries on separately from her husband, and also any money or property so acquired by her through the exercise of any literary, artistic, or scientific skill. and all investments of such wages, earnings, money, or property, shall be deemed and taken to be property held and settled to her separate use, independent of any husband to whom she may be married; and her receipts alone shall be a good discharge for such wages, earnings, money, and property (t).

(2.) Personalty devolving on women

By section 7, it is enacted that where any woman, married after the passing of the Act, shall during her

⁽r) Sections 12, 13, and 14; Sanger v. Sanger, L. R. 11 Eq. 470. See also re Heneage, L. R. 9 Ch. App. 307; and especially Hancocks v. Lablache, 26 W. R. 402; 3 C. P. Div. 196.

⁽t) Lovell v. Newton, 4 C. P. Div. 7.

marriage become entitled to any personal property as married on or next of kin, or one of the next of kin, of an intestate, after August or to any sum of money, not exceeding two hundred intestato; and sums of pounds, under any deed or will, such property shall, money under subject and without prejudice to the trusts of any will not exsettlement affecting the same, belong to the woman for ceeding £200. her separate use; and her receipts alone shall be a good discharge for the same.

By section 8, it is enacted that where any freehold, (3.) Rents and copyhold, or customary-hold property shall descend estate devolvupon any woman married after the passing of the Act, ing "ab intestato" on as heiress or coheiress of an intestate, the rents and women profits of such property shall, subject and without after August prejudice to the trusts of any settlement affecting the 9, 1870. same, belong to such woman for her separate use; and her receipts alone shall be a good discharge for the same.

By section 2, married women are enabled to invest (4.) Investtheir separate property, in savings' banks and Govern-ments. ment annuities; by section 3, in the public funds (u); by section 4, in shares and debentures, to which no liability is attached, in any incorporated or joint-stock company; and by section 5, in similar shares in friendly and benefit societies duly registered. But, of course, the mere investment under these clauses of a fund not otherwise separate property, without the husband's consent, cannot give such fund the character of separate estate, so as to defeat or prejudice the husband's equities. And further, the rights of the husband's cre- Husband's ditors are reserved, by section 6, against property frau-creditors. dulently deposited or invested by him in his wife's name; and the creditors are enabled to follow such property as though the Act had not been passed.

⁽u) In re Bartholomew's Estate, 19 W. R. 95; In re Butlin's Trusts, 19 W. R. 241.

(5.) Life poli-

By section 10, a married woman may effect an insurance on her own or her husband's life to her separate use; and similarly a married man may insure his own life, so as to create a trust for the separate use of his wife, according to the interest expressed on the face of the policy.

The Act gives a married woman a good primâ facie legal title to all the above-mentioned classes of property, as her statutory separate property.

Questions between hus-

Under section 9, a summary remedy is given to band and wife, husband or wife, in all questions between themselves as to property declared by the Act to be the separate property of the wife, that is to say, either party may apply by summons or motion, without bill filed, or writ issued as in an action, to the Court of Chancery, or Chancery Division of the High Court, or to the County Court, irrespective of the value of the property in question.

Wife's right of action at law.

By section II, it is enacted that a married woman may maintain an action in her own name for the recovery of any wages, earnings, money, and property by the Act declared to be her separate property, or of any property belonging to her before marriage, and which her husband shall, by writing under his hand, have agreed shall belong to her after marriage as her separate property, and she shall have in her own name the same remedies, both civil and criminal, against all persons whomsoever for the protection and security of such wages, earnings, money, and property, and of any chattels or other property purchased or obtained by means thereof, for her own use, as if such wages, earnings, money, chattels, and property belonged to her as an unmarried woman; and in any indictment or other proceeding it shall be sufficient to allege such wages, earnings, money, chattels, and property to be her property.

By section 12, it was enacted that a husband should Wife's liability not, by reason of any marriage which should take place for her debts after the Act had come into operation, be liable for the before debts of his wife contracted before marriage; but the wife should be liable to be sued for, and any property belonging to her for her separate use should be liable to satisfy, such debts, as if she had continued unmarried. The defect of this section was, that it was left at the option of the husband and wife whether there should be any reservation of separate property on the marriage, and consequently they might by omitting to make such reservation, whether collusively or innocently, defeat the only remedy left to her ante-nuptial creditors by the Act. This defect has, however, been remedied by the Married Women's Property Amendment Act, 1874 (v), Extent of which (as regards all marriages taking effect after the husband's liability for 30th July 1874) repeals that portion of section 12 of same debts the Act of 1870 which took away the husband's liability Women's Profor his wife's debts contracted before marriage, and perty Amendment Act. enacts that husband and wife may be jointly sued for 1874. any such debts, and further enacts that in respect of all such debts, and likewise in respect of damages resulting from the wife's torts committed before marriage, the husband shall be liable for the said debts and damages respectively to the extent only of the assets afterwards in the Act specified, that is to say, to the extent of the following assets:-

- (1.) The value of the personal estate in possession of the wife which shall have vested in the husband;
- (2.) The value of the choses in action of the wife which the husband shall have reduced into possession, or which with reasonable diligence he might have reduced into possession;
- (3.) The value of the chattels real of the wife which shall have vested in the husband and wife;

⁽v) 37 & 38 Vict., c. 50; and see West of England and South Wales Bank, Exparte Hatcher, W. N. 1879, p. 136.

- (4.) The value of the rents and profits of the real estate of the wife which the husband shall have received, or which with reasonable diligence he might have received;
- (5.) The value of the husband's estate or interest in any property, real or personal, which the wife in contemplation of the marriage may have transferred to him or any other person; and,
- (6.) The value of every property, real or personal, which the wife, in contemplation of her marriage with the husband, shall with his consent have transferred to any other person with the view of defeating or delaying her existing creditors (w).

For maintenance of husband and children.

By section 13 of the Act of 1870, a married woman possessed of separate property is made liable for the maintenance of a pauper husband; and by section 14, she must maintain her children, subject, however, to the father's primary liability to maintain them.

SECTION II.—PIN-MONEY AND PARAPHERNALIA.

Pin-money. For wife's ornament and personal expenditure.

To save the constant recurrence of wife to husband for trifling expenses. I. Pin-Money may be defined as a yearly allowance settled upon the wife before marriage, for the purchase of clothes or ornaments, or otherwise for her separate expenditure; it is in order to deck her person suitably to the rank, and agreeably to the tastes, of her husband, who has accordingly an interest in its expenditure. It is a sum allowed for her personal expenses, in order to save a constant recurrence by the wife to the husband, upon every occasion of a milliner's bill or jeweller's account coming in—the jeweller's account, viz., not for the jewels, because that is a very different question, but for the repair and the wear and tear of trinkets—and for pocket-money, and things of that sort; nor, of course, does it mean the carriage, and the

⁽w) London & Provincial Bank v. Bogle, 7 Ch. Div. 773; see also Griffith's Married Women's Property Acts.

house, and the gardens, but the ordinary personal expenses (x). Gratuitous gifts, or payments from time to time, made to the wife by her husband after marriage, for the same purposes, are also considered as pin-money (y).

Bearing in mind the objects for which pin-money is Not like her apparently given, it seems to follow that it is in some estate in respects very different from money set apart for the some few respects, but wife's sole and separate use during the coverture, ex-like it in cluding the jus mariti; but notwithstanding the dif-most respects. ference of the objects, pin-money is in many (and these the legally most important) respects very similar indeed to separate estate, as will appear from a comparison of the doctrines regarding the separate estate explained in the preceding section, with the following propositions regarding pin-money, which appear to be authorised by the cases on the subject:-

I. That when the wife permits her money to run She can claim into arrear for a considerable time, upon surviving her only one year's arrears. husband, she will only be permitted to claim arrears for one year prior to his death (z); for the very object of the provision being to enable the wife to deck her person suitably to her husband's rank, without having recourse to him continually for small sums of money, that object excludes the supposition that she may accumulate her pin-money while the expenses of her person, and the demands upon her pocket, for those things to which pin-money is applicable, have been otherwise defrayed by her husband (a).

2. Where, however, it appears that the wife has When she

(a) Howard v. Digby, 8 Bligh, N. S. 269.

⁽x) Howard v. Digby, 8 Bligh, N. S. 265. (y) 2 Bright, H. & W. 288.

⁽z) Aston v. Aston, I Ves. Sr. 267; Townshend v. Windham, 2 Ves.

may claim all complained of her pin-money being paid short, and the husband tells her she will have it at last, she is held entitled to *all* arrears due at her husband's death (b).

She cannot claim arrears where he has provided her apparel, &c. 3. Where the husband has paid for all the wife's apparel, and provided for all her private expenses, she cannot claim for any arrears at the death of her husband, for this will be considered a satisfaction by the husband (c).

Wife's executors cannot claim even one year's arrears. 4. It seems to follow from the nature and purposes of pin-money, that the wife's executors have no claim against the husband or his estate, even for one year's arrears (d).

Paraphernalia include gifts to be worn as ornaments. II. Paraphernalia (e).—The paraphernalia of the wife include such apparel and ornaments given to the wife as are suitable to her condition in life, and as are expressly given to be worn as ornaments of her person only (f).

Jewels given to the wife by her husband after marriage will, it seems, be considered her paraphernalia, where they are given her expressly for the purpose of wearing them, as befitting her station in life (g). But it would also appear that gifts from the husband to the wife may be made to her separate use, where they are given to her absolutely, and not merely to be worn as ornaments for her person (h).

⁽b) Ridout v. Lewis, I Atk. 269.

⁽c) Thomas v. Bennet, 2 P. W. 341; Howard v. Digby, 8 Bligh, N. S. 269.

⁽d) Howard v. Digby, 8 Bligh, N. S. 271.
(e) The word paraphernalia is derived from the Greek word παραφέρνη, i.e., property belonging to the wife over and above (παρα) the dower (φερνη) which she brought to her husband.
(f) Graham v. Londonderry, 3 Atk. 394.

⁽g) Jervoise v. Jervoise, 17 Beav. 571; Graham v. Londonderry, 3

⁽h) Graham v. Londonderry, 3 Atk. 394; Grant v. Grant, 13 W. R. 1057.

Old family jewels, which have been handed down But not from father to son, do not constitute the paraphernalia old family jewels. of the wife; but she may, of course, acquire them by gift or bequest, in which latter case they would also belong to her for her separate use (i).

The better opinion seems to be, that where articles Nor gifts by a such as ordinarily constitute paraphernalia are given stranger before or after to the wife, either before or after marriage, by a relative marriage. or friend, they will be considered as given to her separate use, in which case she takes them as a feme sole (i).

The wife cannot dispose of her paraphernalia by gift Wife cannot or will during her husband's lifetime. But the hus-paraphernalia band may, by act inter vivos, during her life, dispose during husband's life. of her paraphernalia by sale or gift (k). He cannot, Husband canhowever, dispose of them by his will (l); but if he them by will. does so, and confers other benefits upon the wife by his will, she will be put to her election between her paraphernalia and any interest which she may take under the will (m). As the husband may dispose of Paraphernalia his wife's paraphernalia in his lifetime, so they will be debts. liable to his debts (n).

With respect to the equity of marshalling the assets Widow's claim in favour of the wife, where the husband dies indebted to parapherand her paraphernalia are taken by his creditors in to general legacies. satisfaction of their demands, after all the general personal estate is exhausted by the creditors, in the administration of assets, the widow's claim to her paraphernalia is preferred to general legacies, and it

⁽i) Jervoise v. Jervoise, 17 Beav. 570.

⁽j) Graham v. Londonderry, 3 Atk. 394; Lucas v. Lucas, 1 Atk. 270; but see Jervoise v. Jervoise, 17 Beav. 571.

⁽k) Seymore v. Tresilian, 3 Atk. 358.

⁽l) Ibid. (m) Churchill v. Small, 2 Kenyon, pt. 2, p. 6.

⁽n) Campion v. Cotton, 17 Ves. 273; and see 2 Ves. Sr. 7.

follows that she is entitled to marshal assets in all those cases in which a general legatee would have that right (o). In fact, as already stated in the chapter on "Marshalling of Assets," the wife as regards her paraphernalia has the first claim after simple contract creditors.

On partial alienation by husband, must be redeemed out of the personal assets, as against legatees.

If the alienation by the husband, in his lifetime, of the wife's paraphernalia be not absolute, but only by way of pledge or mortgage, his wife surviving him will be entitled to have them redeemed out of his personal estate, even to the prejudice of legatees, her right being anterior to them, and to be preferred to their claims, which are merely voluntary (p).

SECTION III.—THE WIFE'S EQUITY TO A SETTLEMENT AND HER RIGHT OF SURVIVORSHIP.

Marriage a gift of wife's personal property to husband both at law and in equity.

Marriage is a gift to the husband of all the personal property, other than separate property, to which the wife is entitled at the time of the marriage, or to which she may afterwards become entitled, subject only to the condition (as regards any chose in action) of his reducing it into possession during the coverture; and no distinction exists, in this respect, between property to which the wife is entitled in equity and property to which she is entitled at law. Primâ facie, then, the wife's property, whether at law or in equity, becomes the husband's. On what grounds, therefore, is the interference of equity derogating from the husband's legal rights, and compelling him to make a settlement on his wife, to be supported?

Her equity to a settlement does not deFirstly, it is safe to assert that her equity to a settlement does not depend on any right of property in

⁽o) Tipping v. Tipping, I P. W. 729; Snelson v. Corbet, 3 Atk. 369; see also p. 289, supra.
(p) Graham v. Londonderry, 3 Atk. 393.

her, and this position will appear the more clear when pend on a right it is considered to what limitations her equity is subject. her. The amount is discretionary in the court, and if the wife insists upon it, she must claim it for herself and her children, and not for herself alone,—limitations which are wholly inconsistent with a right of property in her (q).

The right being thus independent of property, there Her equity seems to be no ground, Secondly, on which it can rest, arises from the except the control which courts of equity exercise over who seeks equity must property falling under their dominion. It is, in truth, do equity." the mere creature of equity deduced originally, where the husband sued, from the rule, that he who comes into equity must do equity; that is, the court refused its aid to the plaintiff-husband in seeking to acquire what the law would have given him if the court of common law had had jurisdiction in the matter; and as the court of law had no jurisdiction, he returned into the Court of Equity, which consented to lend him its aid only upon certain conditions which the court considered he ought to comply with, although the subject of the condition should be one which the court would The court imnot have otherwise enforced (r). And inasmuch as a poses conditions on the father would not have given his daughter in marriage husband coming as plaintiff. without insisting on some provision being made for her and her children, so a court of equity standing, vaguely speaking, in loco parentis towards all married women, will not allow the husband to come into a court of equity for the fortune of his wife without his first making a provision for her.

The principle, after having been once thus far re-Principle excognised where the husband was plaintiff, was next tended to the husband's enforced where the assignees of a bankrupt or insolvent general assignees. husband were plaintiffs, upon the ground that the

⁽q) Osborne v. Morgan, 9 Hare, 434.

⁽r) Sturgis v. Champneys, 5 My. & Cr. 102.

assignees, claiming in right of the husband, should be

Then to particular assignees for value.

aided only upon the same conditions as the court would have imposed upon the husband himself (s). quently the same rule was held to apply as against an assignee of the husband for valuable consideration being plaintiff. "It would be whimsical, then, that the assignment by the husband for valuable consideration should put the assignee in equity in a better situation than the husband himself is in. The guard of the court upon the wife's interest would be very singular if the husband, not being entitled at law, must assign it for a valuable consideration to another person, who would be entitled in equity" (t). Eventually, the principle was extended to suits instituted by the wife herself, and in Elibank v. Montolieu (u) it was decided that as to personalty, where it was perfectly clear that the subject-matter in controversy must be determined and decided upon and distributed in the Court of Chancery, there the wife might come to assert her equity, and need not wait until the defendant came into court to seek the court's aid in the matter.

Wife permitted to assert her right as plaintiff.

Before proceeding to enumerate the varieties of property out of, or in respect of which, the wife is entitled to her equity, it will be convenient and serviceable to not to married the student to express in an abstract form the guiding principles governing the Court of Equity in the matter. There being, first of all, a possibility of the husband getting hold of and keeping (by virtue of the right which the law gives to him as husband) the property in question of the wife, the court next inquires whether the wife, if she survived her husband, would or would not take the entirety of the property by virtue of her right of survivorship hereinafter explained: and if

The general principle upon which the court acts in decreeing or women a settlement.

(s) Oswell v. Probert, 2 Ves. Jr. 682.

(u) I L. C. 464.

⁽t) Macaulay v. Philips, 4 Ves. 19; Ecott v. Spashett, 3 Mac. & G. 599.

(but only if) there is a possibility of the husband getting and keeping the property wholly, and the wife would not be entitled to the entirety thereof by survivorship, then there being this danger to the wife, and such danger being also reasonably imminent, the court assumes jurisdiction to inquire into the question of the wife's equity to a settlement out of the property that is so in danger: And upon this inquiry, the court inquires principally, whether the property in question is or not legal, or is or not equitable; and then generally the court answers—(1.) If the property is equitable, that the wife is entitled to an equity out of it (there being no other sufficient reasons for denying her the equity); and (2.) If the property is legal, that the wife is not entitled to any equity out of it (there being no other sufficient reasons for decreeing to her the equity). In brief, the court asks,—Firstly, Would the husband take all? and if the answer is, "Yes;" then, secondly, Is the property legal or is it equitable?

We may now proceed to apply these principles:

The general principle illus-

(1.) As to the husband's power over his wife's lease- (1.) Wife's holds, and her equity to a settlement out of them hold interests.

against him and his assignees, the rule varies according as the husband's title, in her right, is legal or is equitable. In Hanson v. Keating (v), where the husband (a., Being and wife assigned by way of mortgage the equitable equitable, interest of the husband in right of his wife, in a term equity. of years, and the mortgagee filed his bill against the husband, the wife, and the trustee of the legal estate, for a foreclosure and assignment of the term, it was held that the wife was entitled to a provision for life by way of settlement out of the mortgaged premises.

Where, however, a similar assignment took place of (b.) Being the wife's legal interest in leaseholds, it was held has no equity.

⁽v) 4 Hare, I.

that on the mortgagee filing a bill for foreclosure the wife had no equity to a settlement out of them, inasmuch as a purchaser took a good legal title from the husband (w).

(2.) Pure personal property. (a.) Being legal, -wife (b.) Being equitable,-

(2.) As regards the pure personal property of the wife, there is no doubt at all that, if that property is legal, the wife has no equity; on the other hand, if has no equity. that property is equitable, there is just as little doubt that the wife has an equity out of it, provided she is entitled to the absolute interest in the property, and this against the husband and everybody claiming under him(x).

(aa.) And interest being an absolute interest,wife has an equity.

But an important distinction has been made between cases in which the wife takes an absolute interest, and those in which she takes a life-interest only. As to the former, "it is now clearly settled that a purchaser from the husband of the wife's equitable chose in action, to the corpus of which she is entitled, is in no better situation than the husband himself. On what grounds is it that the court does not apply the same rule where the subject-matter of the sale is an equitable life-interest only? I take them to be these :-Where the interest sought to be recovered through the aid of the court is an absolute equitable interest, the court, though enforcing against the husband what is called the wife's equity, acts, in truth, for the benefit, and with a view to the interests not of her only, but also of her children. It deals with the fund in analogy to what a prudent parent would probably have done in giving a portion to his daughter, and the doctrine having been acted on for centuries, . . . no purchaser from the husband can be deceived or mistaken as to how

⁽w) Hill v. Edmonds, 5 De G. & Sm. 603; Hatchell v. Elggeso, 1 Ir.
Ch. R. 215; and see Pigott v. Pigott, L. R. 4 Eq. 549.
(x) Scott v. Spashett, 3 Mac. & G. 603; Beresford v. Hobson, 1 Madd. 362; Burdon v. Dean, 2 Ves. Jr. 608.

his rights will be dealt with here. There is no doubt or ambiguity. He knows that the fund is the fund of a married woman; and that relation alone, without more, gives rise to her rights, and, through her, to the rights of her children in this court. If therefore he by contract puts himself in the place of the husband, he cannot complain that he should be in no better position than the person to whose rights he succeeds.

"The case is not the same where the court has to (bb.) But if deal with a mere life-interest. No provision in such life only, a case can be made for the children. The question, then the wife has or has then, is one exclusively between the husband and the not an equity, wife. In directing a settlement of a wife's fortune, the husband the court never (assuming that there is no misconduct is or is not maintaining in the husband) deprives him of the income of the her. fund.

(1.) "It is his duty to maintain his wife, and to That is to enable him to do so, this court follows the course of (1.) Husband the common law, and gives him a right to what, but as long as he for the marriage, would be the natural fund for support- maintains the ing the wife.

"By the marriage, and the duty thereby entered into of maintaining her, he becomes a purchaser of what is reasonably and naturally applicable towards enabling him to perform his duty.

(2.) "It is true, that if he fails in the discharge of (2.) Her equity that duty, if he deserts his wife and ceases to maintain fund arises her, this court will not help him to get at the fund on his failure which he can only reach through its process, without her. securing for the wife a portion of his income. this is done not by reason only of the relation resulting from the marriage, but because the husband has failed to perform the duties under which he had brought himself; it is an equity enforced in favour of the wife arising from the husband's misconduct.

(3.) Purchaser of life estate not bound to inquire as to whether the husband is maintaining

(3.) "Now to involve third persons in questions as to how far the husband has or has not duly maintained his wife, would, it has been thought, be inexpedient, and might give rise to discussions irritating and unseemly. It may happen that a husband duly maintaining his wife may, for their common advantage, reasonably sell her life income, and it would be strange that the purchaser's title should be defeated by the subsequent misconduct of the husband in not maintaining his wife "(y).

In accordance with the above principles, it has been held that a married woman, whose husband has deserted her (z), or does not maintain her (a), or has become bankrupt (b), is not entitled to a settlement out of property in which she has an equitable lifeinterest, as against a person to whom her husband had assigned it for value previous to his desertion or bankruptcy. Nor has she any equity to a settlement out of her life-interest where she is living with and is maintained by her husband, though, as she alleges, in a manner very inadequate to her fortune (c).

(4.) Distinction between a particular and a general assignee.

(4.) A distinction has, however, been taken between the position of a particular assignee for value of the husband, and his general assignee or trustee in bankruptcy. The reason for this difference is thus explained by Leach, V.-C.:—"Where an equitable interest is given to the wife, for her life only, this court does permit the husband to enjoy it without the consent of the wife, and without making any provision for her. It is true that if the husband desert his wife, and fail to perform the obligation of maintaining her, which is

⁽y) Tidd v. Lister, 3 De G. M. & G. 869, 870. (z) Wright v. Morley, 11 Ves. 12.

⁽a) Tidd v. Lister, 10 Hare, 140.

⁽b) Elliott v. Cordell, 5 Mad. 149. (c) Vaughan v. Buck, 13 Sim. 404.

the condition upon which the law gives him her property, this court will apply any equitable interest which he retains for the life of the wife, either wholly or in part, for the maintenance of the wife; and if the husband becomes bankrupt, . . . this court will fasten The trustee in the same obligation of maintaining the wife out of the bankruptcy property of this description which devolves by law assignee upon the general assignee, for when the title of such notice, ex hypoassignee vests, the incapacity of the husband to maintain husbandincapthe wife has already raised this equity for the wife; but able of mainthe same principle does not necessarily apply to a wife, and particular assignee for a valuable consideration who do so, while a purchased this interest when the husband was maintain-particular assignee may ing the wife, and before circumstances had raised any have no such present equity in this property for the wife" (d).

notice, and is not bound to inquire.

However, where the wife is held entitled to an No equity to equity out of her life-interest in personalty, she is not arrears of inentitled to any settlement out of arrears of income accrued due before she has set up any claim thereto, but such arrears will be paid to the husband or his assignees (e).

(3.) As to the realty of a married woman, if that is (3.) Realty. realty of inheritance either in fee-simple or in fee-tail, (a.) Of inheritit is clear that the question of the wife's equity to a ance: (aa.) Being settlement out of that realty (as regards the fee-simple legal,— (bb.) Being or fee-tail estate therein) does not arise, because there equitable, is no possibility of the husband taking or keeping the wife has the inheritance adversely to his wife. In this case, either case. whether the estate be legal or equitable, the wife has no equity, because she has something better, namely, the whole indefeasible inheritance.

Thus, in the Life Association of Scotland v. Siddal (f),

⁽d) Elliott v. Cordell, 5 Mad. 149.

⁽e) Re Carr's Trusts, L. R. 12 Eq. 609; 19 W. R. 675. (f) 3 De G. F. & Jo. 271.

it was held that, where a married woman was equitable tenant in tail of land to be purchased with a sum of trust-money, which she had purported to join with her husband in mortgaging, she was not entitled to a settlement out of the capital. Turner, L. J., said:-"Whatever may be the right of a married woman to have a provision made for her out of the income of an estate of which she is equitable tenant in tail, it is not, as I apprehend, according to the course of the court, or indeed in its power, to order a settlement to be made of the estate or land to be purchased. equity for a settlement attaches on what the husband takes in right of the wife, and not what the wife takes in her own right [and which she can keep in spite of her husband]; and the estate tail being in the wife, I do not see what power this court can have to order a settlement of it to be made, or to render such a settlement, if made, binding and effectual against the wife."

Because, she has something better.

(b.) Life-estate in realty,—
(aa.) Being legal,—wife has no equity.
(bb.) Being equitable,—
wife has an equity, at least if husband not maintaining her.

On the other hand, in Sturgis v. Champneys (g), the provisional assignee of an insolvent debtor, whose wife was entitled for life to real property, was obliged to come into equity to enforce his title to the rents during the joint lives of the husband and wife, in consequence of the legal estate being outstanding in mortgagees. It was argued that the court would not secure a provision for a wife unless the property were such as to be a proper subject of equity; and that in this case Lady Champneys had a legal estate for life, and that it was only by the accident of the prior

(g) 5 My. & Cr. 97; Taunton v. Morris, 8 Ch. Div. 453; W. N. 1879, p. 30.

^{*} The judge now speaks satirically:—Of course, if the wife could keep (and she could keep) the whole fee-tail at law, what occasion was there for the Court of Equity, or what power in that court, to take the whole away, and give her back a half or two-thirds on the pretext of protecting her? The judgment has frequently been wholly misunderstood from not perceiving the Lord Justice's satire.

encumbrance being still existing, and the legal estate outstanding, that the plaintiff was compelled to come into equity. But Lord Cottenham held the wife entitled to a settlement out of the rents of her lifeestate. After an examination of the cases on the subject, his Lordship said :-- "From these authorities, and many others which recognise the same principle, it appears that the equity which this court administers in securing a provision and maintenance for the wife is founded upon the well-known rule of compelling a party who seeks equity to do equity; and it is not possible to conceive a case more strongly calling for the application of that rule. The common law gives to the husband the enjoyment of the life-estates of the wife, upon the ground that he is liable to maintain her, and makes no provision for the event of his failing or becoming unable to perform that duty. If the lifeestate be attainable by the husband or his assignee at law, the severity of the law must prevail; but if it cannot be reached otherwise than by the interposition of this court, equity, though it follows the law, and therefore gives to the husband or his assignee the lifeestate of the wife, yet withholds its assistance for that purpose until it has secured to the wife the means of subsistence; it refuses to hand over to the assignee of the husband, to the exclusion of the wife, the income of the property which the law intended for the maintenance of both. Upon the same principle, the ordinary interposition of this court in compelling a settlement of the property of married women, was originally founded, although the wife is permitted actively to assert her equity as a plaintiff; and if such be the principle, what difference can it make when the assignees of the husband are applying to this court for its assistance to obtain the property, that the estate of the wife is not a trust, but that the recovery at law is prevented only by the existence of a prior legal trust-estate?"

The wife may as plaintiff claim a settlement out of her equitable life estate in realty.

And the rule acted upon in the case of Elibank v. Montolieu, as to personalty, is equally applicable to a life-estate in realty being equitable; that is to say, the wife will also be entitled to a settlement where she is plaintiff, and asks for the aid of the court to settle her equitable life-estate upon her, which the husband or his assignee could not render available without resorting to equity. Thus in Wortham v. Pemberton (h), the facts of the case were as follows:--Miss W. was tenant in tail of an estate subject to a jointure, payable to Mrs. H., secured by a term of years, there being a proviso for cesser of the term on the decease of Mrs. H. married Mr. N., who had persuaded her to elope with him, and had been imprisoned for the abduction. It was held that she was entitled to her equity to a settlement out of her equitable life-estate in the estate-tail, that life-estate being the substantial extent of her interest so long as the estate-tail remained unbarred. Knight Bruce, V.-C., said:-- "Although she and her husband, or he in her right, may have the immediate legal freehold, there is a legal title which prevents the enjoyment except by means of a court of equity, and renders the title to the rents equitable so long as the term lasts; and it appears to me that the plaintiff is entitled to a settlement out of the rents during the joint lives of herself and her husband, or until the determination of the term." After further discussion, it was held that the settlement could not be made beyond the jointure term, i.e., beyond the life of Mrs. H. (i); because, of course, upon the cesser of that term, the life-estate became a legal life-estate.

Legal freehold made equitable by the existence of a jointure term

Wife's equity

Inasmuch as alienation by the wife will defeat her defeated by her alienation, equity to a settlement, it becomes necessary to consider in what ways a married woman may validly dispose of

⁽h) I De G. & Sm. 644.

⁽i) But see the remarks of Westbury, L. C., in Gleaves v. Paine, I De G. Jo. & Sm. 93; Dart's V. & P. 529.

property, out of which she would otherwise be entitled to claim her equity, so as to preclude herself from afterwards claiming that equity.

- I. In realty. Under 3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 74 (the 1. Interests in Act for the Abolition of Fines and Recoveries), and realty. 8 & 9 Vict., c. 106, s. 6, a married woman may dispose of her estates of freehold (and, semble, even of leasehold tenure), and may also release or assign any sum of money charged on lands, or the produce of land directed to be sold, whether her interest be in possession or reversion (j), by a deed duly acknowledged by her, and executed with the concurrence of her husband, in the manner provided by the firstmentioned Act (k). She may also alienate her copyholds by surrender, jointly with her husband, on being separately examined as to her free consent by the steward or his deputy (1).
- 2. In personalty. A married woman's interests in 2. Interests in personal estate, so far as they are estates in possession. Personalty. vesting in her husband on marriage, her power of disposition over them is a question which does not arise, but her husband may solely dispose of them, subject only to her establishing, if she is able, her equity to a settlement out of them; and so far as they are estates in reversion, her power of disposition over them is in abeyance during the coverture, as is (in effect also) her husband's power of disposition over them, excepting only in certain cases in which, as falling under Malins's Act, 20 & 21 Vict., c. 57 (m), she may, with the concurrence of her husband, and by deed acknowledged, dispose of same. These excepted cases will be hereafter explained. Of course, other

⁽j) Tuer v. Turner, 20 Beav. 560; Briggs v. Chamberlain, 11 Hare, 69.
(k) 3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 75, 77, ss. 79.
(l) 1 Watk. Cop. 63.
(m) Post, p. 388.

exceptions have also arisen under the Married Women's Property Acts, 1870 and 1874, above explained.

Wife's choses in action belong to husband if he reduce them into possession.

As to the nature and extent of the husband's interest in and power over the wife's choses in action, the common law (apart from statuté) says, that marriage is only a qualified gift to the husband of the wife's choses in action, viz., a gift to him only upon condition that, or if he reduce them into possession during (in effect) his life; so that if he dies before his wife, and without having reduced such property into possession, she, and not his personal representatives, will be entitled to the This reduction into possession is (so far as regards the pure personal estate of the wife) a necessary and indispensable preliminary to the husband's either having in himself, or being able to convey to another, any assured right of property in respect of such personal estate; although as regards the chattels real of the wife, we have seen that a previous reduction thereof into his possession is not a necessary preliminary to the husband's power of disposition over them (n).

Wife surviving her husband takes her reversionary interests which he has not reduced into possession.

In accordance with these principles, in Purdew v. Jackson (o), where a husband and wife, by deed executed by both, purported to assign to a purchaser for valuable consideration a fund in which the wife had a vested estate in remainder, expectant on the death of a tenant for life, and both the wife and the tenant for life outlived the husband, it was decided that the wife was entitled by right of survivorship, and notwithstanding her concurrence in the assignment to claim the whole of her share of the fund against such particular assignee for valuable consideration. "I still continue of opinion," take no more said the Master of the Rolls, "that all assignments

Assignee can

⁽n) Purdew v. Jackson, I Russ. 661; Donne v. Hart, 2 Russ. & My. 363; Duberley v. Day, 16 Beav. 33; and see pp. 344, 345, supra. (o) 1 Russ. I.

made by the husband of the wife's outstanding personal than the huschattels, which are not or cannot be then reduced into band has to possession, . . . pass only the interest which the husband has, subject to the wife's legal right by survivorship" (p).

It was further decided before the passing of Malins's Court had Act, 20 & 21 Vict., c. 57, with regard to the wife's not power to take wife's take wife's reversionary interests, that the court had not even the consent to part with her power of taking the wife's consent to part with them. reversionary "If the wife by her consent could pass a remainder or Forshe would reversion in personal property to the husband, she lose a future possible would part not only with a future possible equity, but equity and her chance of possessing the whole property by survivorship. surviving her husband; and to give this effect to her consent would make it analogous to a fine at law, with respect to real estate, a principle always disclaimed in a court of equity. A court of equity interferes to protect the property of the wife against the legal rights of the husband, and will never lend itself as an instrument to enable the husband to acquire a right in the wife's personal property which he can by no means acquire at law" (q).

It has been held that a claim by the wife for a She has no settlement out of her reversionary interest in property, reversionary so long as it continues reversionary, cannot be sup-interest so ported; on the ground that a court of equity only sionary. deals with interests in possession, and that it is not until the property comes to be distributed, that in ordinary cases the court enforces obligations attaching upon the property, otherwise than by contract. wife's right to a settlement out of that property which the husband at law would, if he could, take possession It is an obli-

⁽p) Elliott v. Cordell, 5 Mad. 149; Stanton v. Hall, 2 Russ. & My. 175, 182; Re Duffy's Trusts, 28 Beav. 386.
(q) Pickard v. Roberts, 3 Mad. 386; Purdew v. Jackson, 1 Russ. 56.

gation fastened, not on the property, but on the right to receive it.

of, in her right, is an obligation which a court of equity fastens not upon the property, but upon the right to receive it; in fine, the wife's equity arises upon the husband's legal right to present possession; and that, of course, can only apply when the remainder or reversion has ceased to be such, and the property has fallen into possession (r), or but for the pendency of an administration action would have been in possession(s). Or, in the language of this present book, there is no danger of the husband getting at such property, and therefore no foundation for an equity to a settlement out of it, so long as it is in its reversionary condition.

Malins's Act, 20 & 21 Vict., c. 57. Feme covert's interests in personalty,-(a.) Being in reversion.

(b.) Being in possession.

By Malins's Act (t) every married woman may, with the concurrence of her husband, by deed acknowledged in the manner required by the Fines and Recoveries Act (u), dispose of every future or reversionary interest, vested or contingent, belonging to such married woman, or her husband in her right, in any personal estate to which she shall be entitled under any instrument (except her own marriage settlement), made after the 31st December 1857; she may also release or extinguish any power in regard to any such personal estate, and also release and extinguish her equity to a settlement out of her personal property in possession under any such instrument as aforesaid. But nothing therein contained is to extend to any reversionary interest to which she shall become entitled under any instrument by which she shall be restrained from alienating or affecting the same. And the powers of disposition given by the Act to a married woman shall not enable her to dispose of any interest in personal estate settled on her by any settlement or agreement for a settlement made on the occasion of her own marriage.

 ⁽r) Osborn v. Morgan, 9 Hare, 434.
 (s) Robinson v. Robinson, W. N. 1879, p. 100.

⁽u) 3 & 4 Will. IV., c, 73. (t) 20 & 21 Vict., c. 57.

If the wife should be entitled to any chose in action, As to cases whether legal or equitable, of a reversionary nature, the Act, not within the above-mentioned Act, the effect of an operation of the assignassignment by the husband will be different under ment. different circumstances. For putting aside the Married Women's Property Acts of 1870 and 1874, it is certain, firstly, that the wife by herself cannot assign, for by the act of marriage she deprives herself of all power so to do; and, secondly, the husband can only assign to another the interest to which he may be entitled himself. Suppose, therefore, that the wife is entitled, on the death of A., a person now living, to a sum of stock standing in the name of trustees, and that her husband should purport to make an assignment of Three possible this reversionary interest to B., a purchaser; the bene- ways in which the assignfit which will accrue to B., by virtue of the assign-ment may result, ment, will vary, according as the husband, the wife, or A., the tenant for life, may die first. If the husband (1.) If husshould die first, B. will lose his purchase, for the wife reversion falls having survived her husband, will now, on the death in, purchaser loses his of A., be entitled to the stock, which has never been purchase,—or draws a blank. reduced into the possession of her husband, or of B., his assignee (v). If A. should die first, B. may then (2.) If reverobtain a transfer of the stock, if the trustees chose to sion falls into possession, the transfer it to him (w); and if the wife should not have husband and wife living, meanwhile taken steps to enforce her equity to a settle-purchaser ment (x). But if the trustees should refuse to transfer ject to her without the direction of the Court of Chancery, or if equity, or draws about the wife should insist upon her right, B. can only take a half, in the fund after making such settlement upon her as the general. court may think fit. If, however, the wife should die (3.) If wife die first, and then first, then this chose in action, remaining unreduced the reversion into possession, will, like a legal chose in action, under falls in, purchaser takes the same circumstances, remain part of the wife's per- all,—or draws the winning

- card.

(x) Greedy v. Lavender, 13 Beav. 62.

⁽v) Purdew v. Jackson, I Russ. 1; Honner v. Morton, 3 Russ. 65. (w) Wheeler v. Caryl, Amb. 121, 122; Moor v. Rycault, Prec. Ch. 22.

Sonal estate; and the husband, on taking out administration to his wife (y), will be bound by his previous assignment. B. will accordingly in this single event obtain the whole fund, subject, however, to the wife's debts, if any (z).

What amounts to reduction into possession.

Mere assignment of a reversion is not a reduction into possession.

Husband's transfer of title-deeds, of which his wife was equitable mortgagee, not enough.

The question as to what amounts to a reduction into possession by the husband of his wife's choses in action, is one that generally will depend on the peculiar circumstances of each case. But it may be useful to mention some of the principles by which the court is guided in deciding this question. In Hornsby v. Lee (a), it was held that a mere assignment of a reversionary chose in action by the husband could not be regarded either as an actual or as a constructive reduction into possession by the husband (b). It is also now clearly established, that whether the husband dies in the lifetime of the person having a prior interest, whereby the chose in action cannot, as against the wife, be reduced into possession, or whether he survives, and dies before it is actually reduced into possession, the same result follows—the chose in action will survive to the wife (c). It has also been held that the transfer by a husband of title-deeds, of which his wife was equitable mortgagee, to secure a debt of his own, was not a reduction into possession so as to defeat the wife's right of survivorship (d). The test of reduction into possession of a sum of money was, in a recent case, declared to be, the right of the husband to maintain an action at law for the amount, as money had and received to his use (e).

⁽y) I Bright's H. and W. 4I; Betts v. Kimpton, 2 B. and Ad. 273. (z) 29 Car. II., c. 3, s. 25; Wms. Pers. Prop. 396.

⁽z) 29 Car. 11., c. 3, s. 25; wms. Fers. Prop. 39 (a) 2 Mad. 16.

⁽b) Le Vasseur v. Scratton, 14 Sim. 116.

⁽c) Ellison v. Elwin, 13 Sim. 309; but see Widgery v. Tepper, L. R. 5 Ch. Div. 516.

⁽d) Mitchelmore v. Mudge, 2 Giff. 183.

⁽e) Aitchison v. Dixon, L. R. 10 Eq. 589; and see Wollaston v. Berkeley, L. R. 2 Ch. Div. 213, where husband and wife died contemporaneously; and In re Barber, Dardier v. Chapman, 11 Ch. Div. 442.

On the other hand, where the income of a married Order of court woman's life-estate had been ordered to be received, income into a and applied by a receiver in a suit, in payment of receiver's hands is a her husband's incumbrances, it was held that arrears reduction into of income in the receiver's hands, which had not been possession. paid as directed, were nevertheless, by the effect of the order, reduced into possession, so as to disentitle the wife surviving to such arrears, because the receiver was to be deemed in the nature of an agent for the person entitled by virtue of the order for appropriation (f). And of course, payment to an agent of the husband is a reduction into possession to the extent of that payment (g).

It has been already observed that the wife's equity, Settlement, at least in cases where she takes an absolute interest, be on wife is not for herself only, but for herself and her children, and children. Though she there being no instance where the settlement has not may waive it, and thus debeen made in favour of the children at the same time; prive her and though the wife may waive or abandon her equity, children. and thus prevent her children obtaining any benefit from it, yet if she claims it for herself, the court requires the benefit to be extended to her children; her equity and the equity of the children are treated as one equity, to be enforced or not, at her option (h). In no case are the children permitted to assert an independent equity; for in all cases the equity of the wife is personal, and the court acknowledges no original title in the children, who can claim only that provision which the wife thinks fit to secure for herself and them; and if the wife consent that the husband shall receive the whole property, the children are deprived of all provision out of it.

⁽f) Tidd v. Lister, 2 W. R. 184.

⁽g) In re Barber, Dardier v. Chapman, W. N. 1879, 86. (h) De la Garde v. Lempriere, 6 Beav. 344.

When the right of children becomes indefeasible.

The inquiry now arises,—What is sufficient to create a title in the children. It has been observed that the wife's equity does not depend on the right of property in her, nor does it create a trust in her favour upon the "It is only a right to require that a trust property. shall be created for her, for the benefit of herself and her children. Before the property is impressed with a trust in her favour, it is necessary that some action should have been taken by her. What action is necessary upon her part to raise a trust, or rather, how far that action must have been carried in order to raise a trust, is the question; but some action must have been taken by her and carried to some certain point, otherwise no trust exists. If the property is in the hands of trustees, it is not enough that she should give them notice, in however formal and regular a manner, that she demands a settlement. Notwithstanding any such notice, the trustees may with impunity hand over the property to the husband. Nor can she enforce a settlement for the benefit of herself alone; it must be, if at all, for the benefit of her children, as well as herself. And yet if she has carried her action far enough to establish a trust for herself and her children, she may at any time before the settlement is completed, waive and defeat it not only as to her own interests, but also as to the interests of her children" (i). Now the folmade, and not lowing points, with reference to this doctrine, are well established:---

(a.) Where wife lives .upon complete execution of settlement.

(b.) Where wife dies,upon decree sooner.

> I. That if the wife die before the bill is filed, giving to the court a jurisdiction or dominion over the fund, the children have no right to require a settlement (i).

If wife dies

2. That if the wife die, even after she has filed a bill

⁽i) Wallace v. Auldjo, 2 Drew. & Sm. 222. (j) Scriven v. Tapley, 2 Eden, 337.

·for a settlement, but before decree, her children cannot before decree, sustain a bill to have a settlement made on them (k). children have no right.

The general principle of the court is, that if in any ordinary case a person files a bill to assert any right to property, or to enforce any trust, his right is not created by the decree, any more than it is created by the filing of the bill. The decree only decides, or rather declares, what his right was at the time of and before the filing of the bill. But these principles cannot safely be applied to questions arising with reference to a wife's equity to a settlement. "It is to be recollected, that when a woman becomes entitled to a certain property absolutely, say a share of property under a will, . . what she becomes entitled to at that time (that is, by virtue of the will before anything done) is not a trust in equity in the sense of a trust or right of property—the property all belongs at law and in equity primâ facie to the husband. But what she becomes entitled to is this—that notwithstanding the marital right, against that right, she has a right to take some action, to do something, or to have something done for her, which shall establish a trust upon that property, in her favour. That is the nature of what is called the wife's equity to a settlement, before anything has been done upon it. And therefore, to reason about such a right as that, as you would about the case of a person who has already got a right of property or a trust actually created, . . . is reasoning in a manner which has been deprecated as dangerous."

3. That if a decree or order has been made by the Right of chilcourt, referring it to the Master, under the old practice, dren as against or to a Judge in Chambers, under the new practice, to on decree.

⁽k) De lu Garde v. Lempriere, 6 Beav. 344; Lloyd v. Mason, 5 Hare, 149; Lloyd v. Williams, 1 Mad. 450. And consider effect of Fitzycrald v. Chapman, L. R. 1 Ch. Div. 563; Burton v. Sturgeon, L. R. 2 Ch. Div. 318.

approve a proper settlement, and the wife dies before anything further is done, the children are entitled to the benefit of that decree or order, and may file a bill to enforce such settlement, as the wife, if still living, would have been entitled to (l). And, semble, a summons to revive and proceed with the decree would be sufficient now (m).

Right of children may arise out of contract by father. after such contract but before execution of settlement (just as on judicial decree) waive her settlement, and so defeat her children.

4. The children's right to have a settlement executed after the death of their mother, who has claimed her equity to a settlement, also arises where there is Wife may also during the marriage a contract by the father, independently of judicial decree, to make a settlement of his wife's property (n). Yet, after such a contract, just as after judicial decree, the wife, if living, may at any time before the execution of the settlement, waive her equity, and altogether defeat her children (o). words of Wigram, V.-C. (p), "There may be a case in which the wife is not absolutely bound, but in which, as against the husband, the children are entitled to the benefit of the mother's equity. If the husband is bound, the children are certainly entitled."

What will defeat her right to a settlement.

The wife's right to a settlement, besides being voluntarily waived by her, may be defeated adversely to her by various causes, viz.:—

(1.) By husband's receipt of the fund.

1. By the receipt by the husband or his assignees of the fund (q).

⁽¹⁾ Wallace v. Auldjo, 2 Drew. & Sm. 223; Murray v. Elibank, 1 L. C. 431.

⁽m) Judicature Acts, 1873-75, Order L., rule 1. (n) Lloyd v. Williams, I Mad. 450; De la Garde v. Lempriere, 6 Beav. 344; Wallace v. Auldjo, 2 Drew. & Sm. 216; and 1 De G. Jo. & Sm. 643.

⁽o) Murray v. Elibank, I L. C. 479; Macaulay v. Philips, 4 Ves. 15; Baldwin v. Baldwin, 5 De G. & Sm. 319.

⁽p) Lloyd v. Mason, 5 Ha. 153. (q) Murray v. Elibank, 1 L. C. 471.

- 2. Where the debts of the wife, contracted before (2.) Where the marriage, for which her husband becomes liable, exceed or even of in amount the fund to which he becomes entitled in husband exceed the fund. her right (r); and similarly where the husband's debts to the estate out of which the wife's interest arises exceed the amount of such interest (s).
- 3. Where an adequate settlement has been made (3.) By an upon her (t); but not by an inadequate settlement, settlement. unless her right to a further settlement be barred by an express stipulation before marriage (u).
- 4. Where she is living in adultery apart from her (4.) By her husband (v); but even then, her husband will not, it less husband seems, while he does not maintain her, be entitled to also living in adultery. receive the whole of her property (w). But where both husband and wife are living in adultery, it has been held that the wife may claim a settlement, upon the principle of setting off the one wrong against the other, whereby the wife is again at large (x).
- 5. By her fraudulent suppression of the fact of her (5.) By her coverture. Thus, where a woman, by a document pur-fraud. porting to bear date before, but in reality signed after, her marriage, affected to assign certain property to her husband, which he afterwards sold, it was held that, though there was evidence of coercion on the part of the husband, yet by her concurrence in his fraud, she had precluded herself from claiming her equity to a settlement as against the purchaser (y).

⁽r) Bonner v. Bonner, 17 Beav. 86; Barnard v. Ford, L. R. 4 Ch. App. 247.

⁽⁸⁾ Osborn v. Morgan, 9 Ha. 432; Knight v. Knight, L. R. 18 Eq. 487. (t) In re Erskine's Truets, I K. & J. 302; Spicer v. Spicer, 24 Beav. 365; Giacometti v. Prodgers, L. R. 14 Eq. 253; 8 Ch. App. 338.

(u) Salwey v. Salwey, Amb. 692; Garforth v. Bradley, 2 Ves. Sr. 675.

(v) Carr v. Eastabrooke, 4 Ves. 146; In re Lewin's Trust, 20 Beav.

⁽w) Ball v. Montgomery, 2 Ves. Jr. 191.

 ⁽x) Greedy v. Lavender, 13 Beav. 62.
 (y) In re Lush's Trusts, L. R. 4 Ch. App. 591.

Amount of settlement.

(a.) When husband is solvent.

When the husband is solvent, the amount to be settled upon the wife and children is a matter which depends generally on the arrangement between the husband and wife, and if the husband being solvent refuses to make a settlement upon his wife, the court will not, because it cannot, so long as he supports her, prevent his taking the produce or interest of her property, but the court will in such a case retain the capital, so as to give the wife a chance of taking it by survivorship (z); and, of course, if the husband survive, he may insist upon the court paying out the entire capital to himself; in other words, a solvent husband may hold out against, and eventually beat the court. The question as to what amount should be settled upon the wife arises most frequently when the husband has become bankrupt. No general rule can be laid down. It is a matter purely within the discretion of the court, to be determined according to the circumstances and merits of the case (a). The court will take into consideration whether the wife has acquired any benefit out of the property of her husband (b); the conduct and circumstances of the husband (c); and the conduct of the wife (d).

(b.) When husband is insolvent.

Generally half is settled on her.

The rule in general, in the absence of special circumstances, is that one-half of the wife's property shall be settled upon herself and her children, and the remaining moiety shall go to her husband or his assignees (e).

⁽z) Sleech v. Thorington, 2 Ves. Sr. 561; Atcheson v. Atcheson, 11 Beav. 485.

⁽a) Carter v. Taggart, 1 De G. M. & G. 289; Aubrey v. Brown, 4 W. R. 425.

⁽b) In re Erskine's Trusts, I K. & J. 302; Green v. Otte, I Sim. & Stu. 250.

⁽c) Marshall v. Fowler, 16 Beav. 249; Barrow v. Barrow, 18 Beav. 529.

⁽d) Barrow v. Barrow, 5 De G. M. & G. 795; Giacometti v. Prodgers, L. R. 14 Eq. 253: 8 Ch. App. 328

<sup>I. R. 14 Eq. 253; 8 Ch. App. 338.
(e) Dunkley v. Dunkley, 2 De G. M. & G. 396; In re Suggitt's Trusts, L. R. 3 Ch. App. 215.</sup>

And in some cases, it has been held that the whole sometimes fund will be settled on her and the children; as where the whole fund will be it is small, and barely sufficient for the maintenance settled. of the wife and children (f); e.g., where the husband having become bankrupt is not able to maintain his wife (g); or where the husband has deserted or behaved cruelly to his wife, and does not maintain her (h); or is a lunatic (i).

Since the extent of the wife's equity is, to have a Form of settlesettlement made for the benefit of herself and her ment. children, the court will not interfere with the marital right further than is necessary to give effect to that equity. The ultimate limitation, therefore, in default of issue of the existing marriage, or of any future marriage or marriages of the wife, will be to the husband absolutely (i), whether or not he survive the wife (k).

As to the question, how far settlements made in How far bindconsideration of the wife's equity to a settlement will ing as against creditors of be binding as against creditors, the following rules may husband. be laid down:—

I. Where the husband has once reduced into posses- If husband sion the equitable choses in action of his wife, and then property into makes a voluntary settlement on his wife out of them, possession and them, then make a the question of the validity or invalidity of such settle- settlement, it must conform ment against creditors will, apart from statute, depend to 13 Eliz.,

reduce her

⁽f) In re Kincaid's Trusts, I Drew. 326.

⁽g) Scott v. Spashett, 3 Mac. & G. 599; Gardner v. Marshall, 14 Sim.

⁽h) Dunkley v. Dunkley, 2 De G. M. & G. 390; Re Ford, 32 Beav.

⁽i) In re Dixon's Trusts, W. N. 1879, p. 57.
(j) Croxton v. May, L. R. 9 Eq. 404; 9 Ch. Div. 388; In re Suggitt's Trusts, L. R. 3 Ch. App. 215; Spirett v. Willows, L. R. 1 Ch. App. 520; Oliver v. Oliver, 10 Ch. Div. 765.
(k) Walsh v. Wason, L. R. 8 Ch. App. 482; Cogan v. Duffield, L. R. Ch. Div. 482, Ch. Div.

² Ch. Div. 44; Gale v. Gale, L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 144.

Valid if bona fide, though on a meritorious

upon the bonâ fides of the transaction. Also, if the husband, being largely indebted at the time, conveys consideration. property in trust for his wife and children, such a conveyance may be within, and void under, the statute 13 Eliz., c. 5, as against the husband's creditors (1). But as that statute only directs that no act whatsoever, done to defraud a creditor, shall be of any effect against that creditor, a bonâ fide settlement, where there is no imagination of fraud, or rather no fraud in point of actual fact, not imagination, will, even though voluntary (m), be supported as against the husband's cre-Trader's settle- ditors (n). By the Bankruptcy Act, 1869, it is enacted, that "a settlement made (by a trader), on or for the benefit of wife or children of the settlor, of property which has accrued to the settlor after marriage in right of his wife," shall be good as against his assignees in bankruptcy (32 & 33 Vict., c. 71, s. 91).*

ment of wife's property under Bankruptcy Act, 1869.

If court decree creditors are bound.

2. Where the court decrees a settlement upon the the settlement, wife, "the court will support it as a good settlement for valuable consideration" (o).

Settlement by husband, on trustees refusing to part with the wife's property, also good.

3. Where the wife, after marriage, becomes entitled to property which the husband cannot touch without the aid of the court, and the trustees will not pay it without the husband making a settlement; and if the husband agrees to settle it, and do that which the court would decree, it is a good settlement against creditors (p).

⁽l) Goldsmith v. Russell, 5 De G. M. & G. 547.
(m) Holmes v. Penney, 3 K. & J. 90; Sagitary v. Hide, 2 Vern. 44.
(n) Cadogan v. Kennett, Cowp. 434; see ante, pp. 83, 84.

* The reader should recur to the chapter on "Express Private Trusts," for a further exposition of these lastly mentioned matters. (o) Wheeler v. Caryl, Amb. 121; Simson v. Jones, 2 Russ. & My.

^{365.} (p) Wheeler v. Caryl, Amb. 121, 122; Moor v. Rycault, Prec. Ch. 22; In re Wray's Trusts, 16 Jur. 1126.

SECTION IV.—SETTLEMENTS IN DEROGATION OF MARITAL RIGHTS.

It being a general rule of law and equity that a hus- Wife must not band becomes entitled to the property of his wife on commit a fraud on the marriage, any alienation of property by her in fraudu-marital right. lent derogation of the marital rights will in equity be deemed null and void. In Strathmore v. Bowes (q), Lord Thurlow thus states the rule:—"A conveyance Conveyance by a wife, whatsoever may be the circumstances, and by wife primal facie good. even the moment before the marriage, is primâ facie good, and becomes bad only upon the imputation of fraud. If a woman, during the course of a treaty of marriage with her, makes, without notice to the intended husband, a conveyance of any part of her property, I should set it aside, though good prima facie, because affected with that fraud."

The cases decided on this subject support the following conclusions:---

I. If a woman entitled to property enters into a If during a treaty for marriage, and during the treaty represents treaty of marriage she to her intended husband that she is so entitled; that alienes withupon the marriage he will become entitled jure mariti; knowledge and if during the same treaty she CLANDESTINELY con- property to which she has veys away the same property to a volunteer (r), or represented herself ensettles the property upon herself, in such a manner as titled, it is to defeat the marital right, and the concealment con-fraudulent. tinues until the marriage takes place, there can be no doubt but that a fraud is practised in such a case on the husband, and he is entitled to relief (s).

out husband's

2. And not only is this principle applicable where Same printhe husband knew of the existence of her property, cable if he did

(q) I L. C. 446.

⁽r) Lance v. Norman, 2 Ch. Rep. 79. (s) England v. Downes, 2 Beav. 528.

not know her to be possessed of such property.

but it has been extended much further; for in Goddard v. Snow (t), a woman ten months before marriage, but after the commencement of that intimate acquaintance with her future husband which ripened into marriage, made a settlement of a sum of money which he did not know her even to be possessed of. The marriage took place, she concealing from him both her right to the money, and the existence of the settlement. Ten years after, on her death, it was held on a bill filed by the husband, that the settlement was void, as a fraud upon his marital rights (u).

Not fraudulent, if to a purchaser for valuable consideration without notice. 3. But when a woman about to marry, sells or conveys to a purchaser for valuable consideration, without notice of any intended derogation of the marital right, the sale or conveyance will be held good (v). It seems uncertain, however, whether if the purchaser for value have notice, the sale or conveyance will stand as against the husband (w).

Void, even though meritorious, if secret. 4. It would seem that a clandestine settlement made by a woman pending her marriage, even if meritorious in its nature, as on the children of a former marriage, or on her illegitimate children, will be set aside as a fraud on the husband (x).

Marriage with notice of settlement binds husband. 5. If the intended husband is acquainted before his marriage with the fact of an assignment of property made by his intended wife, and nevertheless still thinks fit to marry her, he will be bound by it (y):

⁽t) I Russ. 485.

⁽u) Downs v. Jennings, 32 Beav. 290; Taylor v. Pugh, I Hare, 608. (v) Blanchet v. Foster, 2 Ves. Sr. 264; Lewellin v. Cobbold, I Sm. & Giff. 376. (w) Ibid. (x) Taylor v. Pugh, I Hare, 608.

⁽w) Ibid. (x) Taylor v. Pugh, I Hare, 608. (y) St. George v. Wake, I My. & K. 610; Wrigley v. Swainson, 3 De C. & Sm. 458; Slocombe v. Glubb, 2 Bro. C. C. 545; but see Nelson v. Stocker, 4 De G. & Jo. 458.

6. In all the cases it has been held that the settle- A husband ment to be invalidated must have been made without can only set the husband's knowledge, during the course of the treaty veyance when made pending for marriage WITH HIM. It has been accordingly held the marriage that a settlement made by a widow upon herself and with him. the children of a former marriage was not fraudulent. because it was proved that the person she afterwards married was not at the time of the settlement "her THEN intended husband" (z). And in Strathmore He must be (Countess) v. Bowes (a), the plaintiff pending a treaty tended of marriage with A., made a settlement of her property husband. with his (A.'s) approbation; a few days after, B. gained her affections, and she threw over A., and married B., who had no notice of the settlement. It was, however, held good against B., as it could be no fraud on HIM. his brief period of courtship not having commenced at date.

7. Where the husband has before marriage seduced If he has his wife, and thus rendered retirement from the mar-before marriage on her part extremely inconvenient, a settlement riage, her convenient, a settlement veyance is of her property made by the female before the mar-good as riage, although without her husband's knowledge, will, against him. it seems, be supported (b).

⁽z) England v. Downs, 2 Beav. 531.

⁽a) I L. C. 446.

⁽b) Taylor v. Pugh, I Hare, 608.

CHAPTER XXII.

INFANTS.

Guardians. Who may be the guardians (a) of an infant.

Father. Mother. 1. The father is the guardian by nature and nurture of his children during their infancy (b). But by 36 Vict., c. 12, the court may grant the custody of infants under the age of 16 years to the mother, where that is for the benefit of the infant.

Testamentary guardian.

2. By 12 Car. II., c. 24, a power was conferred upon the father of appointing, even though a minor, by deed or will, a guardian for his legitimate children; and guardians so appointed are usually called testamentary guardians. But by the Wills Act (c), the power of making a will is taken from minors, but they may still appoint guardians for their children by deed.

A testamentary guardian is a trustee, and the Statute of Limitations is inapplicable to accounts as between him and his ward (d).

Guardian appointed by; stranger standing in loco parentis.

3. The father may waive his natural rights of guardianship in favour of a stranger, whom he has permitted to put himself *in loco parentis* towards his child. Where, therefore, under these circumstances, the stranger has provided for the maintenance and

⁽a) For the various kinds of guardians ancient and modern, see Brown's Dictionary, title Guardian.

⁽b) Wellesley v. Beaufort, 2 Russ. 21.

⁽c) 1 Vict., c. 26. (d) Mathew v. Brise, 14 Beav. 341.

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education of the child, and has appointed guardians, the father will be restrained in equity from asserting his parental rights to the prejudice of his child's future interests (e). And where a father, having waived his right to have his child educated in his own religion, appointed a testamentary guardian, and such guardian sought to have the child brought up in the father's religion, notwithstanding that his previous education had been in the mother's religion, the court by injunction restrained the guardian from applying for the delivery up of the child by the mother to himself, upon the ground that it was for the infant's benefit to have his education continue as it had previously gone on (f).

4. Guardian by appointment of the court. The Guardian origin of the jurisdiction of the Court of Chancery appointed by court. over infants has been a matter of much juridical discussion. The better opinion seems to be, that this jurisdiction has its just and rightful foundation Jurisdiction,in the prerogative of the Crown, flowing from its nature and origin of. general power and duty as parens patriae, to protect those who have no other lawful protector (q). Partaking, as it does, more of the nature of a judicial administration of rights and duties, in foro conscientiae, than of strict executive authority, it would naturally follow, eâ ratione, that it should be exercised in the Court of Chancery, as a branch of the general jurisdiction originally confided and delegated to that Court. Hence it is that this jurisdiction does not belong to the Lord Chancellor alone, as holder of the Great Seal and Keeper of the Royal conscience, but may be exercised by the Master of the Rolls also; and as in other cases where the Court of Chancery has a general jurisdiction, an appeal lies to the House of Lords from the decision of the Court of Chancery.

Ch. Div. 49.

(g) De Manneville v. De Manneville, 10 Ves. 63; and see In re Johnsons Infants, 8 Ch. Div. 1.

⁽e) Powel v. Cleaver, 2 Bro. C. C. 499.
(f) Andrews v. Salt, L. R. 8 Ch. 622. But see In re Agar-Ellis, 10

Infant becomes a ward of court when bill is filed relative to his estate.

Or an order made without suit.

If a bill be filed or action commenced relative to an infant's estate or person, the court acquires jurisdiction, and the infant, whether plaintiff or defendant, and even during the life of its father, or of its testamentary guardian, immediately becomes a ward of the court (h). And where without suit an order for maintenance had been made on summons in Chambers, it was held that the infant thereby became a ward of court (i). jurisdiction may also be evoked on petition under the Custody of Infants Act, 1873 (i).

Infant must have property that court may exercise its jurisdiction usefully.

The Court of Chancery will appoint a suitable guardian to an infant where there is none other, or none other who will or can act; but, as a general rule, it will not do so unless where the infant has property, although it may do so under exceptional circumstances (k). "It is not, however," as observed by Lord Eldon, "from any want of jurisdiction that it does not act where it has no property of an infant, but from a want of the means to exercise its jurisdiction, because the court cannot take on itself the maintenance of all the children in the kingdom. It can exercise this jurisdiction usefully and practically only where it has the means of doing so-that is to say, by its having the means of applying property for the use and maintenance of the infant (l).

Jurisdiction over guardians.

In general, parents are intrusted with the custody and education of their children, on the natural presumption that the children will, by their parents, be properly treated, and due care be taken of their education. morals, and religion; but if the court has reasonable

⁽h) Butler v. Freeman, Amb. 303.

⁽i) In re Graham, L. R. 10 Eq. 530; In re Hodges Settlement, 3 K. and J. 213.

⁽j) 36 & 37 Vict., c. 12; see In re Taylor, L. R. 4 Ch. Div. 157. (k) See Re Spence, 2 Phil. 247.

⁽¹⁾ Wellesley v. Beaufort, 2 Russ. 21.

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grounds for believing that the children would not be properly treated, it "would interfere even with parents, upon the principle that preventing justice is preferable to punishing injustice" (m). But the court requires a strong case to be made out before it will interfere with a father's guardianship. Accordingly, where the When father father is insolvent (n), or his character and conduct are guardianship. such as are likely to contaminate the morals of his children (o), or where he is endangering their property or neglecting their education (p), or is guilty of illtreatment and cruelty to them (q), it is not a matter of course to take the father's guardianship away, but if the danger to the children is proximate and serious, then the custody of the children will be committed to a person to act as guardian (r).

The guardian will be allowed to regulate the mode Guardian of, and to select the place for, the education of his and place of ward, whose obedience will be enforced by the court (s). education of his ward. And the court will aid guardians in obtaining possession of the persons of their wards when they are detained from them.

If the guardian wishes to take his ward out of the When guarjurisdiction of the court, and in some other cases where security. there is danger of injury to the ward's person or pro-

⁽m) Wellesley v. Beaufort, 2 Russ. 21; In re Besant, 11 Ch. Div. 508. (n) Kiffin v. Kiffin, 1 P. W. 705.

⁽o) Shelley v. Westbrooke, Jac. 266 n.

⁽b) Shewey v. Westorone, Sac. 200 n.
(p) Crueze v. Hunter, 2 Cox, 242.
(q) Whitfield v. Hales, 12 Ves. 492.
(r) Ex parte Mountford, 15 Ves. 445; 36 Vict., c. 12.
(s) Hall v. Hall, 3 Atk. 721. See Tremain's Case, I Str. 167, where, "being an infant, he went to Oxford, contrary to the orders of his guardian, who would have him go to Cambridge, and the court sent a messenger to carry him from Oxford to Cambridge; and upon returning to Oxford, there went another, tam to carry him to Cambridge, quam to keep him there."

perty, the court will always take security from the guardian before sanctioning his removal out of the jurisdiction (t).

Guardians must not change character of ward's property.

> iere for

Except where necessary for his benefit.

Representa-

Guardians will not ordinarily be permitted to change the personal property of an infant into real property, or the real property into personalty. And this rule is founded on two considerations,—such a conversion may not only affect the rights of the infant himself, but it might also, if he should die under age, have affected at one time the rights of his representatives; for it must be remembered that, before the passing of the Wills Act (u), an infant might dispose of personal property before he attained the age of twenty-one, but could not devise real property until he had attained that age (v). But guardians may, under peculiar circumstances, and where it is manifestly for the benefit of the infant, change the nature of the estate; as for necessary expenses, such as repairs (w), or by payment of a certain sum out of the personal estate of the infant, in pursuance of a condition imposed on a devise of an estate to him (x): and the court will support their conduct if the act be such as the court would itself have done, under the like circumstances, by its own order (y). And although there is no equity in these cases of conversion between the representatives of the infant, nevertheless, the court has a regard to the circumstance that these representatives may be affected thereby, and it is always inclined to keep a strict hand over guardians, in order to prevent partiality and misconduct. For the purpose of prevent-

⁽i) Jeffreys v. Vanteswarstwarth, Barn. Ch. R. 141; Biggs v. Terry, I My. & Cr. 675.
(u) I Vict., c. 26.

⁽v) Ex parte Phillips, 19 Ves. 122; Sergeson v. Sealey, 2 Atk. 413; Ware v. Polhill, 11 Ves. 278.

⁽w) Ex parte Grimstone, 4 Bro. C. C. note, 235; Amb. 708.(x) Vernon v. Vernon, cited I Ves. Jr. 456.

⁽y) Ex parte Phillips, 19 Ves. 122; and compare Steed v. Preece, 22 W. R. 432.

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ing any such acts of the guardian, from changing im-tives who properly the rights of the parties, who, as heirs or dis- would have taken before tributees, would otherwise be entitled to the property, the change, still take after it is the constant rule of courts of equity to hold lands the change, purchased by the guardian with the infant's personal infant dies estate, or with the rents and profits of his real estate, under age. to be personalty, and distributable as such; and, on the other hand, to treat real property turned into money (as, for example, timber cut down on an infant's fee simple estate) as still retaining its original character of real estate, in case of the death of the infant before he arrives of age. And when the court directs any such change of property, it directs the new investment to be in trust (but only in case the infant should die under twenty-one) for the benefit of those who would be entitled to it, if it had remained in its original state (z). On the other hand, if the infant attains twenty-one, although he should die the next day, his representatives must take his property according to its actual condition at the time of the death of the once infant.

In the case of wards of the court, whether male or Marriage of female, even when they have parents living, or guar- ward of court must be with dians, it is necessary to apply to obtain the permission its permission. Counting of the court before their marriage can take place (a), at marriage of If a man should marry a female ward without the ward without consent and approbation of the court, he and all others tempt. a conconcerned in aiding and abetting the Act will be treated as guilty of contempt of court, and may be (but seldom are) punished by imprisonment (b). And it seems that, although the husband, or those contriving and

⁽z) Ware v. Polhill, II Ves. 278; Foster v. Foster, L. R. 1 Ch. Div. 588.

⁽a) Smith v. Smith, 3 Atk. 305. (b) Wortham v. Pemberton, I De G. & Sm. 644; Ex parte Mitchell. 2 Atk. 173.

assisting at a marriage, are not aware that the infant is a ward of court, their ignorance will not be sufficient to acquit them of contempt of court, although it may weigh in determining other matters (c).

Guardian must give recognisance that ward shall not consent.

With a view also to prevent the improper marriages of its wards, the guardian on his appointment is genemarry without rally required to give a recognisance that the infant shall not marry without the leave of the court; so that, if an infant should marry, though without the privity, knowledge, or negligence of the guardian, yet the recognisance would in strictness be forfeited, whatever favour the court might, upon an application, think fit to extend to the guardian when he should appear to have been in no active fault (d).

Improper marriage restrained by injunction.

With the same view, the court will, where there is reason to suspect an intended and improper marriage without its sanction, by an injunction, not only interdict the marriage, but also interdict communications between the ward and the admirer (e), and if the guardian is suspected of any connivance, it will remove the infant from his care and custody, and commit the ward to the care of others (f).

Settlement must be approved by court.

In case of an offer of marriage of a ward, the court will generally refer it to Chambers, to ascertain and report whether the match is a suitable one, and also what settlement ought to be made (q). This reference is usually obtained upon petition.

⁽c) More v. More, 2 Atk. 157; Herbert's Case, 3 P. W. 116.

⁽d) Eyre v. Countess of Shaftesbury, 2 L. C. 633. (e) Lord Raymond's Case, Cas. t. Talb. 58; Pearce v. Crutchfield. 14 Ves. 206.

⁽f) Tombes v. Elers, Dick, 88.

⁽g) Smith v. Smith, 3 Atk. 305; Leeds, v. Barnardiston, 4 Sim. 538.

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When the marriage has been actually celebrated Considerawithout the sanction of the court, the court will not settlement discharge the husband, who has been committed for contempt, until he has made such a settlement upon the female ward as, upon a reference to Chambers, shall, under all the circumstances, be equitable and proper. The nature of the settlement will depend in a great measure upon the fortune, position, and conduct of the husband, whether the parties are of equal rank and fortune, or the husband is in such a position as would lead to a suspicion of mercenary motives for the marriage on his part (h).

Under the Marriage Act, 4 Geo. IV., c. 76, the Settlement guardian of any minor, who has married without his under Marriage Act, consent, may, on information filed, obtain a declaration 4 Geo. IV., of forfeiture against either party, who has procured the solemnisation of the marriage by falsely stating that such consent had been given, and the court will thereupon decree a settlement on the innocent party or the issue of the marriage (i).

By 18 & 19 Vict., c. 43 (explained by 23 & 24 Binding settle-Vict., c. 83), an infant, not being under twenty years ments by infants, under of age if a male or seventeen years if a female, is en- 18 & 19 Vict., abled, with the approbation of the Court of Chancery, to make a binding settlement on marriage of his or her real and personal estate, whether in possession, reversion, remainder, or expectancy (j).

It will not make any difference in the case, that the Waiver by ward has since come of age, and is ready to waive her settlement.

⁽h) Ball v. Coutts, I V. & B. 303; Field v. Moore, 7 De G. M. & G.

⁽i) See 19 & 20 Vict., c. 119, s. 19; Att.-Gen. v. Read, L. R. 12 Eq. 38; Dan. Ch. Pr. 10-12.

⁽j) Re Olive, 11 W. R. 819; Barrow v. Barrow, 4 K. & J. 418; Sim-son v. Jones, 2 Russ, & My. 365.

right to a settlement; for the court (if it can find any remaining ground for exercising the jurisdiction over her) will protect her against her own indiscretion, and the undue influence of her husband (k).

Father bound to maintain his children, though there is a provision for maintenance. Except when he is prevented by poverty. A wife liable Vict., c. 93.

A father is bound to maintain his children, and will not usually have any allowance out of their property for that purpose, notwithstanding there is a provision for their maintenance (l); but where the father is in such circumstances of poverty as not to be able to give a child an education suitable to the fortune which he expects, maintenance will be allowed (m). A wife was under 33 & 34 formerly under no legal obligation to maintain her children (n). But now, by the Married Women's Property Act, 1870 (o), if possessed of separate property, she is liable to contribute to their maintenance. to a limited extent, and only in case the husband is unable to maintain them. Also, if there is a contract on marriage amounting to a trust, that property SHALL be applied for the maintenance and education of the children, the property must be applied without reference to the ability of the father to maintain and educate them, and in exoneration even of the father (p).

When father is entitled to an allowance.

How allowance is regulated.

In allowing maintenance for an infant, regard will be had to the state and condition of his family. Thus, where there are younger children, especially if they are numerous and totally destitute, the court will make a liberal allowance to the eldest son, that he may be the better able to maintain his brothers and sisters (q).

⁽k) Hobson v. Ferraby, 2 Coll. 412; Long v. Long, 2 Sim. & St. 119. (l) Stocken v. Stocken, 4 My. & Cr. 98; Meacher v. Young, 2 My. & K. 490. See also Ransome v. Burgess, L. R. 3 Eq. 773.

⁽m) Buckworth v. Buckworth, 1 Cox. 81. (n) Hodgens v. Hodgens, 4 C. & F. 323.

⁽a) 33 & 34 Vict., c. 93, s. 14. (p) Thompson v. Griffin, 1 Cr. & Ph. 317, 320. (q) Pierpoint v. Cheney, 1 P. Wms. 488; Bradshaw v. Bradshaw, 1 J. & W. 647.

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And a liberal allowance will also sometimes be made for infants, in order to relieve or assist their parents when in distressed circumstances (r). In all such cases, it is the infant's benefit again which is alone considered; although the benefit which he derives in these cases is indirect and merely of a social and moral kind.

⁽r) Heysham v. Heysham, 1 Cox. 179; and see Brown v. Smith, 10 Ch. Div. 377; In re Roper's Trusts, 11 Ch. Div. 272.

CHAPTER XXIII.

LUNATICS, IDIOTS, AND PERSONS OF UNSOUND MIND.

Unsoundness of mind is no ground for jurisdiction in equity.

It is to be stated here at the outset that unsoundness of mind in itself gives the Court of Chancery no jurisdiction whatever. It is not like infancy in that The Court of Chancery is by law the guardian of infants, whom (as we have seen) it makes its wards; but it is not the curator of the person or of the estate of a person non compos mentis. And if the Court of Chancery in any case entertains proceedings affecting a person non compos mentis, it assumes the jurisdiction upon some ground independent of the unsoundness of mind, that is to say, upon such or the like grounds as it would think sufficient at the suit of the person himself if of sound mind, e.g., upon the ground of a trust, or of a partnership, or such like (a).

The jurisdiction was in upon inquisition.

Clearly, therefore, it would be an error to suppose the Exchequer, that the Court of Chancery, as such, has jurisdiction in lunacy; nor is any encouragement given to that error in the history of the jurisdiction of the court, as stated stated that the Court of Chancery, as a permanent tribunal, originated in 22 Edward III. by an ordinance of that king and in that year; but already long before that date the jurisdiction in lunacy was already in existence, and was at that time vested in the Court of Exchequer (b), that court having special care of the

⁽a) Beall v. Smith, L. R. 9 Ch. App. 85; In re Edwards, M'Neile v. Chambers, 10 Ch. Div. 665; In re Currie, 10 Ch. Div. 93. But see Vane v. Vane, L. R. 2 Ch. Div. 124, commented on in Re Bligh, W. N. 1879, p. 150. (b) Mem. Scacc. Trin. 19 Edw. I.

Crown's prerogative in the matter of revenue, of which Because a lunacy and idiocy were sources. This prerogative of matter of revenue. the Crown was subsequently defined in the Statute of Prerogatives (c), the 9th chapter of that statute relating to idiots, and the 10th chapter relating to lunatics. Under these two chapters of that statute, the Crown acquired (in effect) the management of the estates of idiots and of lunatics, subject to the duty of maintaining the idiot or lunatic, as the case might be, during all the period of the mental incapacity, and rendering up the same estates to the representatives of the idiot upon his death and to the lunatic himself (upon his recovery), or to his representatives in like manner upon his death. There was practically little distinction in the Crown's management of the estates, whether of idiots or of lunatics, and the distinction (so far as any existed) has long since ceased. And at the present day whatever is stated of lunacy is commonly intended (as in the residue of this present chapter) of both lunatics and idiots indifferently, including also all persons whatsoever of unsound mind so found by inquisition.

The jurisdiction of the Court of Exchequer in lunacy Exchequer was very early superseded; and the jurisdiction was lunacy transsubsequently vested in divers courts and in divers ferred to Lord Chancellor. officials, not profitable to specify here; but eventually the practice became a constant one of the Crown to delegate the care and custody of lunatics and of their estates to the Lord Chancellor, not as being the President of the Court of Chancery, but as being an executive officer of the highest standing in the realm and enjoying the most intimate personal relations with the Crown. The accident that he was also a great judicial officer, head of the Court of Chancery, and competent as an adviser in matters of law and equity affecting or which might possibly affect the lunatic as regarded his

property and even his person, was a reason not without its own weight, which probably helped to permanently fix the jurisdiction in lunacy in the President of the Chancery Court. The convenience of the conjunction is in many ways felt at the present day, as will appear hereunder.

Lords Justices in Chancery, concurrently with, and in aid of, Lord Chancellor, acquired the jurisdiction, and now exercise it.

Shortly after the appointment of the Lords Justices in 1851 (d), as a court of Appeal in Chancery with all the original and other jurisdiction of the Lord Chancellor in the Court of Chancery (§ 5), a warrant was made out to each of them under the Queen's Sign Manual, entrusting them with the care and custody of lunatics; and under the Lunacy Regulation Act, 1853 (e) the jurisdiction of the Lords Justices in lunacy was continued, concurrently with that of the Lord Chancellor; and upon the coming into operation of the Judicature Acts, 1873-5, when the Lords Justices became a mere limb of the new Court of Appeal, and were therefore indirectly deprived of all original jurisdiction in the Chancery division of the High Court, they were appointed, by virtue, apparently, of sect. 51 of the Judicature Act, 1873, additional judges of the High Court of Justice, for the purpose of more effectively exercising their jurisdiction in lunacy (f), so as to possess and be able to exercise all that original jurisdiction of Chancery that was ancillary to the jurisdiction in lunacy. But the aforesaid combination of a limited Chancery jurisdiction with the lunacy jurisdiction proper has not altered the character, nor reduced the extent, of the lunacy jurisdiction, from which therefore, as heretofore, the appeal lies not to the House of Lords (as it would from Chancery proper) but to the Judicial Committee of H. M. Privy Council (q).

(e) 16 & 17 Vict., c. 70.

⁽d) 14 & 15 Vict., c. 83. (e) 16 & 17 Vict., c. 70. (f) Re Lamotte, L. R. 4 Ch. Div. 325. (g) Grosvenor v. Drax, 2 Knapp. 82; Judicature Act, 1873, s. 18, suspended by Judicature Act, 1875, s. 2, till Nov. 1, 1876, and now apparently suspended altogether.

The recent case Beall v. Smith (h) affords a strik-Beall v. Smith. ing illustration of the several jurisdictions in Chancery eddings in and in Lunacy. There, the plaintiff having become of Chancery would be a unsound mind, a bill was filed in his name by a next contempt on friend for the purpose of winding up the business in the Lunacy jurisdiction. which he had been engaged; a receiver was appointed, and a decree directing accounts was taken. plaintiff's family were not consulted in the institution of the suit, and were opposed to its further prosecution. Nevertheless, an order on further consideration was made, and the costs of the suit taxed and paid out of the estate. Pending the suit, application was made in Lunacy, and an inquisition having been issued, and verdict finding the lunacy obtained, a committee was appointed of the plaintiff's estate. It having then been discovered that further proceedings had been taken in the suit, a petition was presented by the lunatic and his committee for a declaration that the same were void; and on appeal to the Lords Justices. it was ordered that all proceedings in the suit, subsequent to the appointment of the receiver, should be set aside, with costs to be paid by the plaintiff's solicitor; the court expressing an opinion, that all the proceedings after the inquisition were a gross contempt on the jurisdiction in Lunacy.

The Lord Justice James thus stated the principles Equity exerwhich regulate the court in the exercise of its juris-diction in spite diction in cases of persons of unsound mind not so of the unfound by inquisition: "It is to be borne in mind, that mind, and unsoundness of mind gives the Court of Chancery no only where no inquisition. jurisdiction whatever. The Court of Chancery is not the curator either of the person or the estate of a person of unsound mind, whom it does not and cannot make its ward. It is not by reason of the incompetency, but notwithstanding the incompetency, that the Court of

Chancery entertains the proceedings. It can no more take upon itself the management or disposition of a lunatic's property, than it can the management or disposition of the property of a person abroad or confined to his bed by illness. The court can only exercise such equitable jurisdiction as it could under the same circumstances have exercised at the suit of the person himself, if of sound mind" (i).

Or, if an inquisition, then only by direction of the Court in Lunacy.

And further, in his judgment in the last-mentioned case, the same Lord Justice further stated, that the committee appointed over the person and estate of a lunatic is only an officer of the Court of Lunacy, that court being only the delegate of the Crown's prerogative; and that it was, because in that way the Crown, by its proper tribunal, had the lunatic and all his affairs under its exclusive care and protection, that the power of any other person to commence or to prosecute any proceedings for his protection was taken away. Application can at all times be made to the Court in Lunacy by the lunatic's committee for the court's sanction as to anything that may require to be done, and that court may direct proceedings in the High Court. And for the better guidance of the committee, the Lunacy Regulation Act, 1853, beforementioned, in its 108th and following sections, contains various directions and authorities to the committee regarding the management and administration of the lunatic's estate, and making reports thereof to the Court of Lunacy or its proper officers, the masters (j).

Conversion of lunatic's estate.

His interest alone consulted. In the case of a lunatic, the court will not generally alter the state of the lunatic's property so as to affect the rights of his representatives, unless where it is for the benefit of the lunatic himself. "The general object of attention in the administration is solely and

⁽i) See also Jones v. Lloyd, 22 W. R. 787; Vane v. Vane, L. R. 2. Ch. 124. (j) In re Meares, 10 Ch. Div. 552.

entirely the interest of the lunatic himself, without His represenlooking to the interests of those who upon his death tatives have may have an eventual right of succession. Accordingly tween them. They take the in such a case, where the conversion is made by the fund in the direction of a court of competent jurisdiction in Lunacy, which it is as there are no equities between the heir and the next actually found. of kin, they will take the properties to which they are respectively entitled, according to the actual character in which they find them" (k).

⁽k) Oxenden v. Compton, 2 Ves. Jr. 72; Ex parte Phillips, 19 Ves. 118; Re Leeming, 7 Jur. N. S., 115; 3 De G. F. & Jo. 43; In re Wharton, 5 De G. M. & G. 33, 16 & 17 Vict., c. 70, s. 119, Aud compare decision in Steed v. Preece, 22 W. R. 432.

PART III.

THE CONCURRENT FURISDICTION.

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Origin of concurrent jurisdiction. THE concurrent jurisdiction of courts of equity had its origin in this way,—Either the courts of law, although they had a general jurisdiction in the matter, could not give adequate, specific, or perfect relief, or, under the actual circumstances of the case, they could not give It often happened, e.g., that a simple relief at all. judgment for the plaintiff or for the defendant did not meet the full merits and exigencies of the case, but a variety of adjustments, limitations, and cross claims had to be introduced and worked out, and a decree meeting all the circumstances of the particular case between the very parties was therefore indispensable to complete distributive justice. And it also often happened that the object sought, though treated as generally falling within a class of right cognisable by courts of law, was in the special instance, from special circumstances, or from the weakness of the common law, practically beyond the pale of its jurisdiction; as, for instance, where a perpetual injunction, or a preventive process to restrain trespasses, nuisances, waste, was wanted. It might, therefore, be said that the concurrent jurisdiction of equity extended to all cases of legal rights, where, under the circumstances, there was not an adequate and complete remedy at law. while at the present day, in consequence of the fusion of law and equity, under the Judicature Acts, 1873-5,

Concurrent jurisdiction extends to cases where there is not a plain, adequate, and complete remedy at law. the jurisdictions at law and in equity are throughout concurrent, still in all these cases in which the equity jurisdiction, though concurrent, would prior to that fusion have been the preferable jurisdiction to sue under, in all these cases the Chancery Division is and remains the appropriate jurisdiction in which to entitle and to prosecute the action, and it is so for the identical reasons that were heretofore of weight, making only verbal changes therein.

The subject of the concurrent jurisdiction may be Division of the divided into two branches:—

- I. Cases in which the ground of action itself constitutes the principal foundation for the jurisdiction, e.g., cases of accident, mistake, or fraud; and,
- II. Cases in which the peculiar remedies afforded by courts of equity constitute the principal ground of the jurisdiction, e.g., matters of suretyship, partnership, questions of account and set-off, specific performance, injunction, partition, &c.

These two several branches of the jurisdiction will be taken in the order above expressed. And under the first of them fall,—

- I. Accident;
- 2. Mistake; and
- 3. Fraud, Actual and Constructive, together with Fraud in relation to Companies.

CHAPTER I.

ACCIDENT.

Accident.

By the term accident is intended in equity, not any inevitable casualty or act of Providence, or vis major, i.e., irresistible force, but any unforeseen event, misfortune, loss, act, or omission which is not the result of negligence or misconduct in the party. For example, if an annuity is directed by a will to be secured by public stock, and an investment is accordingly made, sufficient at the time for the purpose, but afterwards the stock is reduced by Act of Parliament, so that it becomes insufficient, equity will relieve the executor from all liability therefor as an accident, although it may decree the deficiency to be made up against the residuary legatees (a).

Reduction of Government stock.

To give equity jurisdiction, there must be no complete legal remedy, and the party must have a conscientious title to relief.

But it is not every case of accident which will justify the interposition of a court of equity (b). The jurisdiction being concurrent, will be maintained only, first, when a court of law cannot grant suitable relief; and secondly, when the party has a conscientious title to relief. Both circumstances must concur in any case to constitute a ground on which relief in equity may be craved. For it is certain that in some cases of accidents, courts of law can and always could afford adequate relief, as in cases of "loss of deeds, mistakes in receipts and payments, wrong payments,

(b) Whitfield v. Fausset, I Ves. Sr. 392.

⁽a) Davics v. Wattier, I Sim. & St. 463; May v. Bennett, I Russ. 370;St. 93.

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deaths which make it impossible to perform a condition literally, and a multitude of other contingencies (c).

The first consideration, then, is whether there is an Is there an adequate remedy at law? not merely whether there is adequate remedy at some remedy at law; and here a most material dis-law? tinction is to be attended to. In modern times. courts of law frequently interfere and grant a remedy, under circumstances in which it would certainly have been denied by these same courts in earlier periods; and sometimes the Legislature, by express enactments, has conferred on courts of law the same remedial faculty which belongs to courts of equity. With reference to Courts of either of these cases, it is a fixed rule, that, if the courts equity do not lose their juof equity originally obtained and exercised jurisdiction risdiction because the over a particular subject-matter, that jurisdiction can-common law not be in any way affected, merely by the circumstance, subsequently that the common law courts have had conferred upon acquired it them a power to deal with such subject-matter, similar to that exercised by courts of equity. "It does not follow, because the court of law will give relief, that this court loses the concurrent jurisdiction which it always had" (d).

I. The cases in which equity will give relief against I. Cases in accident fall conveniently into three groups, viz. the which equity relieves against following:—

- (1.) Cases of lost and destroyed documents;
- (2.) Cases of the imperfect execution of powers; and,
- (3.) Cases of erroneous payments.

In the first of these three groups of cases, one of the First group most common interpositions of equity is in the case of lost and bonds or other instruments under seal which have been destroyed documents.

⁽c) 3 Bl. Com. 431. (d) Atkinson v. Leonard, 3 Bro. C. C. 222; British Empire Shipping Co. v. Somes, 3 K. & J. 437.

being lost.

(1.) Bonds, &c., lost. Until a very recent period, the doctrine prevailed that there could be no remedy on a lost bond in a court of common law, because there could be no profert or production of the instrument in court, in order that the defendant might demand oyer of it—that is, that it should be produced and read in open court (e). At present, however, the courts of law do entertain the jurisdiction, and dispense with the profert, if an allegation of loss, by time and accident, is stated in the declaration (f). But this circumstance is not permitted in the slightest degree to change the course in equity (g).

Equity can grant relief by requiring an indemnity, which a court of law cannot

The original ground, therefore, of granting the relief was the supposed inability of a court of law to afford it in a suitable manner, from the impossibility of making a profert; but, independently of that ground for the original interference of equity, there was another satisfactory reason for the continuance of that interference, notwithstanding that courts of common law had jurisdiction over the subject-matter. A court of equity alone could give a complete remedy, with all the fit limitations which justice required, by granting relief only upon the condition that the plaintiff who sought its aid should give, if necessary, a suitable bond of indemnity. Now a court of law was incompetent to require such a bond of indemnity as a part of its judgment, although it has sometimes attempted an analogous relief by requiring the previous offer of such an indemnity. But such an offer might in many cases fall far short of the just relief; for in the intermediate time there might be a great change in the circumstances of the parties to the bond of indemnity (h).

⁽e) The old practice of profert and over is abolished by the C. L. P. Act of 1852, s. 55. And see Walmsley v. Child, I Ves. Sr. 344.

⁽f) Read v. Brookman, 3 T. R.; 151 Duffield v. Elwes, 1 Bligh, N. S. 543.

⁽g) Kemp v. Pryor, 7 Ves. 249, 250.

⁽h) See England v. Tredegar, L. R. I Eq. 622.

Thus, in The East India Co. v. Boddam (i), Lord Eldon says, "How can a court of law contrive an indemnity? In a case before me in the Court of Common Pleas, the declaration was upon a lost bill of exchange. The plaintiff in the action proves that he offered to indemnify. Suppose he proves that he proposed the security of a man, in the highest credit at that time, but who became a bankrupt an hour after-Is that an indemnity?" (k). wards.

There used to be an important distinction of pro-Where discedure between cases where a plaintiff, alleging the sought, no loss of a bond, sought discovery merely, and cases affidavit necessarry, unless where he prayed for relief. Where discovery only, relief also is asked. and not relief, was the object of the bill, there equity would grant the discovery without any affidavit of loss or offer of indemnity; but equity would entertain a suit for relief, only upon the party making an affidavit of loss of the instrument, and offering indemnity.

The ground of this distinction was that, when relief was prayed, the forum of jurisdiction was sought to be changed from law to equity; and in all such cases an affidavit ought to be required, to prevent abuse of the process of the court. But when discovery only was sought, the original jurisdiction remained at law, and equity was merely auxiliary. The jurisdiction for discovery alone would therefore seem, upon principle, to have been universal. But the jurisdiction for relief was special and limited to peculiar cases; and in all these cases there must have been an affidavit of the loss, and when proper, an offer of indemnity also, in the bill (k).

At the present day, there cannot be (or can hardly

⁽i) 9 Ves. 467.

⁽j) Ex parte Greenaway, 6 Ves. 812. (k) Walmsley v. Child, I Ves. Sr. 334.

be) any case of an action in equity regarding a *lost* bond for discovery only; and therefore the action being for relief, the affidavit of loss and the offer of indemnity will in all cases now be required.

(2.) Title-deeds being lost.

But the loss of a title-deed was not always a ground to come into a court of equity for relief; for if there was no more in the case, although the party might be entitled to a discovery of the original existence and validity of the deed, courts of law might afford just relief, since they would admit evidence of the loss of a deed, just as a court of equity would do (l,) and upon proof of such loss secondary evidence of the contents of the deed and (if necessary) of its validity also, was admissible at law. To enable the party, therefore, in case of a lost title-deed, to come into equity for relief, he must have established that there was no remedy at all at law, or no remedy which was adequate and adapted to the circumstances of the case. Thus, he might come into equity when a titledeed of land had been destroyed, or else concealed by the defendant; for then, as the party could not know which alternative was correct, a court of equity would make a decree, which a court of law could not, that the plaintiff should hold and enjoy the land until the defendant should produce the deed or admit its destruction (m). So, if a deed concerning land was lost, and the party in possession prayed discovery, and to be established in his possession under it, equity would relieve, for no remedy in such a case lay at law (n). And where the plaintiff was out of possession, there were cases in which equity would interfere upon lost or suppressed title-deeds, and would decree possession to the plaintiff; but in all such cases, there must have been other equities calling for the action of the

⁽l) Whitfield v. Fausset, I Ves. Sr. 392.(n) Dalston v. Coatsworth, I P. Wms. 731.

⁽m) Ibid.

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court (o). Indeed, the bill must always have laid some ground besides the mere loss of a title-deed, or other sealed instrument, to justify a prayer for reliefas that the loss obstructed the right of the plaintiff at law, or left him exposed to undue perils in the future assertion of such right. And the like special grounds would still be necessary in such cases, and for obvious reasons, to found the equity jurisdiction.

With reference to lost bills of exchange and other (3.) Negotiable negotiable instruments, it was, after some conflict of being lost. authority, decided, that if a bill, note, or cheque, negotiable either by endorsement and delivery, or by delivery only, was lost, no action would lie at the suit of the loser against any one of the parties to the instrument, either on the bill or note itself, or on the consideration (p); and the law was the same though the bill had never been endorsed (q.) In this case, therefore, the proper remedy was in equity, not only on the ground of there being no remedy at law, but also on account of the power equity possessed of compelling the plaintiff to give a proper indemnity to the defendant. And the jurisdiction of equity over such cases of lost bills was not taken away by the 17 & 18 Vict., c. 125, s. 87, which enacts, that in case of any action founded upon a bill of exchange or other negotiable instrument, the court of common law has power to order that the loss of such instrument shall not be set up, provided an indemnity is given to the satisfaction of the court against the claims of any other

It seems to be doubtful whether or not, if a bill or (4.) Non-negonote not negotiable be lost, an action will lie at law on ments being

person upon such negotiable instrument (r).

⁽o) Dormer v. Fortescue, 3 Atk. 132.
(p) Hansard v. Robinson, 7 B. & C. 90; Crowe v. Clay, 9 Exch. 604.
(q) Ramuz v. Crowe, 1 Exch. 167.

⁽r) King v. Timmerman, L. R. 6 C. P. 466.

the bill, or (failing that) on the consideration (s); in equity, however, such a security may be assigned, and therefore an indemnity would be justly demandable, and this gives to equity sufficient ground for assuming the jurisdiction.

(5.) Negotiable and non-negotiable instruments being destroyed.

As to destroyed negotiable instruments, the weight of authority seems to support the conclusion that at common law, by the customs of merchants, the holder suing on the bill or note must, on payment, deliver up the bill or note, and cannot recover unless he do so, and he cannot do so when the instrument has been destroyed; but that he may in such a case recover on the original consideration, and that is enough (t). Also, in the case of Wright v. Maidstone (u), Wood, V.-C., held that courts of equity have never acquired jurisdiction to give relief on account of the destruction of a bill of exchange, because there was a complete remedy in such cases at law. With regard to destruction non-negotiable instruments, the rule is the same as for negotiable instruments when destroyed (v).

Second group of cases,— (I.) Defective execution of powers, being powers simply.

It is a general rule that the non-execution of a mere power will not be aided in equity (w). But the rule is different where there is a defective execution of a power, resulting either from accident, mistake, or both, and also in regard to agreements to execute powers which may generally be deemed a species of defective execution (x). Equity will relieve in such cases against the defective execution of a power, but only in favour of certain persons who are regarded by a court of equity

⁽s) Byles on Bills, 374.

⁽t) Hansard v. Robinson, 7 B. & C. 95; Byles on Bills, 373. (u) 1 K. & J. 708. (v) Byles on Bills, 3

⁽u) I K. & J. 708. (v) Byles on Bills, 372. (w) Arundell v. Phillpot, 2 Vern. 69; Bull v. Vardy, 7 Ves. Jr. 272. (x) Sugd. on Pow. 549.

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with peculiar favour, and where there are no opposing equities in the case. The aid of equity will be afforded (I) to a purchaser (y), which term includes a mortgagee and a lessee (z); (2) to a creditor (a); (3) to a wife (b); (4) to a legitimate child (c), for wives and children are in some degree considered as creditors by nature (d); and (5) to a charity (e). But it has been decided that a defective execution will not be aided in favour of the donee of the power (f), nor of a husband (g), nor of a natural child (h), nor of a grandchild (i), nor of remote relations, much less of volunteers (i); and, in fact, in favour of no others than the five favoured classes of persons above enumerated.

As to the defects which will be aided, they may What defects generally be said to be any which are not of the very tion of a power essence and substance of the power. Thus, a defect are aided. by executing the power by will when it is required to be by deed or other instrument inter vivos will be aided (%); but not vice versû, for if the power is required to be executed only by will, and it is executed by an absolute and irrevocable deed, no relief will be granted (1). Nor will equity aid where the power is executed without the consent of parties who are re-

⁽y) Fothergill v. Fothergill, 2 Freem. 257.

⁽z) Barker v. Hill, 2 Ch. R. 218; Reid v. Shergold, 10 Ves. 370. (a) Pollard v. Greenvil, I Ch. Ca. 10; Wilkes v. Holmes, 9 Mod. 485.

⁽b) Cowp. 267; Clifford v. Burlington, 2 Vern. 379.
(c) Sarth v. Blanfrey, Gilb. Eq. R. 166; Sneed v. Sneed, Amb. 64;

Bruce v. Bruce, L. R. 11 Eq. 371.

(d) Barnard, C. C. 107; Hervey v. Hervey, 1 Atk. 561.

(e) Innes v. Sayer, 7 Hare, 377; 3 Mac. & G. 609; Att.-Gen. v. Sib-

thorp, 2 Russ. & My. 107.

 $^{(\}hat{f})$ Ellison v. Ellison, 6 Ves. 656. (g) Watt v. Watt, 3 Ves. 244.
 (h) Tudor v. Anson, 2 Ves. Sr. 582.

⁽i) Watts v. Bullas, I P. Wms. 60.

⁽j) Smith v. Ashton, I Freem. 309. (k) Tollet v. Tollet, 1 L. C. 254.

⁽¹⁾ Reid v. Shergold, 10 Ves. 370; Adney v. Field, Amb. 654

quired to consent to it (m), unless when their consent has become immaterial or impossible to obtain. But equity will supply such defects as the want of a seal, or of witnesses, or of a signature, or defects in the limitations of the property (n).

(2.) Execution of powers in the nature of trusts, although left wholly unexecuted.

But we must be careful to distinguish between mere powers and powers in the nature of trusts. distinction between a power and a trust is marked and obvious. Powers are never imperative, they leave the act to be done at the will of the party to whom they are given. Trusts are always imperative, and are obligatory upon the conscience of the party intrusted (o). But sometimes trusts and powers are blended; a man may be invested with a trust to be effected by the execution of a power given to him, which is in that case imperative; in other words, the trust may have been vested in him under the garb or in the disguise of a power, but it is none the less for that a trust; and if he refuse to execute it, or die without having executed it, equity will interpose and give suitable relief, because his omission to do so by accident or design, ought not to disappoint the objects of the donor (p).

Third group of cases, (i.) Accident in payment by executors or administrators. In the course of administration of estates, executors and administrators often pay debts and legacies under a well-founded belief that the assets are sufficient for all purposes. It may turn out, however, from unexpected occurrences, or from unsuspected debts and claims coming to light subsequently, that there is a deficiency of assets—for the payment even of the debts.

⁽m) Mansell v. Mansell, cited in Scott v. Tyler, 2 Bro. C. C. 450.

⁽n) Chance on Powers, 2878, 2879, 2886, 2890. See I Vict., c. 26, s. 10, and 22 & 23 Vict., c. 35, s. 12.

⁽o) Wilm. 23.

⁽p) Warneford v. Thompson, 3 Ves. 513; Brown v. Higgs, 8 Ves. 574

Under such circumstances the executors used to be entitled to no relief at law. But in a court of equity, if they have acted with good faith and with due caution, they will be clearly entitled to relief, upon the ground that otherwise they will be innocently subject to an unjust loss from what the law itself deems an accident (q). An executor or administrator stands in the condition in equity of a gratuitous bailee, and will not be charged without some default in him. Therefore, if any of the goods of the testator are stolen from the executor, or from the possession of a third person to whose custody they have been delivered by the executor, the latter shall not in equity be charged with these assets (r). Again, if the goods be of a perishable nature, and before any default in the executor to preserve them, or sell them at due value, they are impaired, he shall not answer for the first value, but shall give that matter in evidence to discharge himself (s). And since the Judicature Acts, 1873-5, this is now the view accepted in courts of law regarding the executor's position (t).

As another illustration of the doctrine of relief in (2.) A minor equity upon the ground of accident, it may be stated, prentice, and that if a minor is bound as apprentice to a person, master becomes bankand a large premium is given to the master, who be-rupt. comes bankrupt during the apprenticeship, in such a case equity will interfere, and apportion the premium upon the ground of the failure of the contract from accident (u),—a principle of equity, which has been adopted by the Legislature in the Bankruptcy Act, 1869 (v).

⁽q) Edwards v. Freeman, 2 P. Wms. 447; Hawkins v. Day, Amb. 160; St. 90.

⁽r) Jones v. Lewis, 2 Ves. Sr. 240.

⁽s) Clough v. Bond, 3 My. & Cr. 496; Wms. on Exors. 1666-1679. (t) Job v. Job, 26 W. R. 206; L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 562. (u) Hale v. Webb, 2 Bro. C. C. 78.

⁽v) 32 & 33 Viet., c. 71, s. 33.

II. Cases where equity will not give relief. (1.) In matters of positive contract,e.g., Absolute covenant to pay rent, not relieved against, upon demised premises.

II. It remains to consider, secondly, those cases of accident in which equity will not give relief. first place, in matters of positive contract and obligation created by the deliberate act of the parties, it is no ground for the interference of equity, that the party has been prevented from fulfilling them by accident; or that he has been in no default; or that he has been destruction of prevented by accident from deriving the full benefit of the contract on his own side. Thus, if a lessee on a demise covenants to pay rent, or to keep the demised premises in repair, he will be bound to do so in equity as well as in law, notwithstanding the destruction or injury of those premises by inevitable accident, as if they are burnt by lightning, or destroyed by public enemies, or by any other accident, or by overwhelming force (w). The reason is, that he might have provided for such contingencies by his contract, if he had so chosen; and the law will presume an intentional general liability where he has made no exception (x).

(2.) Contracts where parties are equally innocent.

And the like doctrine applies to other cases of contract where the parties are equally innocent. Thus, for instance, if there is a contract for a sale at a price to be fixed by an award, during the life of the parties, and one of them dies before the award is made, the contract fails, and equity will not enforce it upon the ground of accident; for the time of making the award is expressly fixed in the contract, according to the pleasure of the parties; and there is no equity to substitute a different period (y).

(3.) Where party claiming In the next place, courts of equity will not grant

⁽w) Bullock v. Dommitt, 6 T. R. 650; Brecknock Can. Co. v. Pritchard, 6 T. R. 750; Belfour v. Weston, I T. R. 310; Pym v. Blackburn, 3 Ves. 34, 38.

⁽x) St. 101. See also Bute (Marquis) v. Thompson, 13 M. & W. 487; Mellers v. Devonshire (Duke), 16 Beav. 252.

⁽y) St. 103; Blundell v. Brettargh, 17 Ves. 232-240; White v. Nutts, I P. Wms. 61; Mortimer v. Capper, I Bro. C. C. 156.

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relief to a party upon the ground of accident, where the relief has been accident has arisen from his own gross negligence or gulty of gross negligence. fault; for, in such a case, there is in fact no accident properly so called, as above defined, and a party has no claim to come into a court of justice, to ask to be saved from the consequences of his own culpable misconduct (z).

Again, courts of equity will not interpose upon the (4.) Where ground of accident, where a party has not a clear relief has no vested right; but his claim rests in mere expectancy, vested right, and is a matter not of trust, but of volition. As if a probability of testator, intending to make a will in favour of particular persons, is prevented from doing so by accident, equity cannot grant relief; for a legatee or devisee is a mere volunteer taking by the bounty of the testator, and has no independent right, until there is a title consummated by law (a).

In the next place, no relief will be granted in equity (5.) Equity will where the other party stands upon an equal equity, party where and is entitled to equal protection, as in the case of a the other party has an bonâ fide purchaser for valuable consideration without equal equity. notice (b).

⁽z) Ex parte Greenaway, 6 Ves. 812.

⁽a) Whitton v. Russel, I Atk. 448.

⁽b) Powell v. Powell, Prec. Ch. 278; Malden v. Menill, 2 Atk. 8.

CHAPTER II.

MISTAKE.

Mistake.

MISTAKE, as recognised and relievable against in a court of equity, may be defined, in contradistinction from accident, as some unintentional act or omission arising from ignorance or surprise, and sometimes from imposition or misplaced confidence, but in the latter case it is not distinguishable from fraud.

This subject may be divided into two classes of cases—

- Mistakes in matter of law.
- II. Mistakes in matter of fact.

I. Mistake of law,—as a general rule. Iqnorantialegis neminem excusat.

I. As to mistakes in matter of law, it is a wellknown maxim that ignorance of the law is no excuse not relievable to any person either for a breach or for an omission of duty,-Ignorantia legis neminem excusat-and this maxim is as much observed in equity as at law. The presumption is, that every one assuming to deal with his own property is acquainted with his rights to it or in it, provided he has had a reasonable opportunity of knowing them. And nothing can be more liable to abuse than to permit a person after parting with his property to reclaim it upon the mere pretence that, at the time of parting with it, he was ignorant of the law affecting his title. But the maxim applies, properly speaking, only to the general law of the country (a), and not therefore to ignorance of a private jus or right.

⁽a) Cooper v. Phipps, L. R. 2 H. L. 149, 170.

An agreement entered into in good faith, though An agreement under a mistake of law, will be held valid and oblitake of law gatory upon the parties. Thus, where a devise was binding. made to a woman upon condition that she should marry with the consent of her parents, and she married without such consent, whereby a forfeiture accrued to other persons, and these latter persons afterwards executed an agreement respecting the estate, whereby the forfeiture was in effect waived, the court refused any relief. Lord Hardwicke said, "It is said they might know the fact (i.e., of the marriage without consent) and yet not know the consequence in law; but if parties are entering into an agreement, and the very will out of which the forfeiture arose is lying before them and their counsel, while the drafts are preparing, the parties shall be supposed to be acquainted with the consequence of law as to this point, and shall not be relieved on pretence of being surprised, with such strong circumstances attending it" (b).

Although it is clear that relief will not be granted Cases in which in equity against a mistake in point of law, with full equity relieves against a misknowledge of all the facts, there are certain cases ap-take of law. parently exceptions to this general rule, and usually so classed, but which, upon examination, will be found to have turned, not upon the consideration of a mere mistake of law, stripped of all other circumstances, but upon an admixture of other ingredients going to establish misrepresentation, imposition, abuse of confidence, undue influence, mental imbecility, or that sort of surprise which equity uniformly regards as a just foundation for relief (c).

Thus, it has been laid down as an unquestionable (1.) Where a doctrine, that if a party, acting in ignorance of a clear der ignorance

⁽b) Pullen v. Ready, 2 Atk. 591; Irnham v. Child, 1 Bro. C. C. 92; Worrall v. Jacob, 3 Mer. 255. (c) Willan v. Willan, 16 Ves. 82.

of a plain and well-known principle of law.

and settled principle of law, is induced to give up a portion of his indisputable property to another, under the name of a compromise, a court of equity will relieve him from the effect of his mistake. Thus, if the eldest son, who is heir-at-law of all the undisposedof fee-simple estates of his ancestor, should, in gross ignorance of that rule of law, knowing, however, that he was the eldest son, agree to divide the estates with the younger brother, such an agreement would be held in a court of equity invalid, and relief would be granted. Here, ignorance of a plain and established doctrine so generally known, and of such constant occurrence, as a common canon of descent, may well give rise to a presumption that there has been some undue influence, imposition, mental imbecility, surprise, or confidence abused. But in such cases the mistake of law is not the foundation of the relief, but it is the medium of proof to establish some other proper ground of relief. And perhaps, in this case, the eldest son's ignorance of his being the heir-at-law may be considered a mistake of a fact as well as of law, and on that ground alone might entitle him to relief (d).

(2.) Surprise a mistake of law remedied.

Cases of surprise, combined with a mistake of law. combined with also stand upon a ground peculiar to themselves. In such cases the agreements or acts are unadvised and improvident, and without due deliberation; and therefore they are held invalid upon the common principle adopted by courts of equity, to protect those who are unable to protect themselves, and of whom an undue advantage is taken (e). Where the surprise is mutual there is of course a still stronger ground to interfere, for neither party has intended what has been done.

Ves. 51.

⁽d) Broughton v. Hutt, 3 De G. & Jo. 501; and see remarks of Lord Westbury in Cooper v. Phipps, L. R. 2 H. L. 170.
(e) Evans v. Llewellyn, 2 Bro. C. C. 150; Ormond v. Hutchinson, 13

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They have misunderstood the effect of their own agreements or acts; or have pre-supposed some facts or rights existing, as the basis of their proceedings, which in truth did not exist (f).

But where the mistake arises not from ignorance of Compromises, a plain and settled principle of law, but on a doubtful where a doubtpoint of law, a compromise fairly entered into, with ful point of law. due deliberation and full knowledge, will be upheld in a court of equity as reasonable in itself, to terminate the differences by dividing the stake, and as supported by principles of public policy (g).

It is upon this ground that the whole doctrine of Family comthe validity of family compromises rests. The principle upheld if no has been fully established that, when family agree-suppression ments have been fairly entered into, without conceal-suggestio falsi, ment or imposition on either side, with no suppression closure. of what is true, or suggestion of what is false, each of the parties investigating the subject for himself, and each communicating to the other all he knows, and all the information which he has received on the question. then, although the parties may have greatly misunderstood their position, and mistaken their rights, a court of equity will not disturb the quiet which is the consequence of that agreement (h). "Wherever doubts and disputes have arisen with regard to the rights of different members of the same family, and especially where those doubts have related to a question of legitimacy, and fair compromises have been entered into to preserve the harmony and affection, or to save the honour, of the family, those arrangements have been sustained by this court, albeit, perhaps, resting

⁽f) Willan v. Willan, 16 Ves. 72, 81; Cochrane v. Willis, L. R. 1 Ch. 58.

⁽g) Pickering v. Pickering, 2 Beav. 56; Gibbons v. Caunt, 4 Ves. 849; Naylor v. Winch, 1 S. & S. 564. (h) Gordon v. Gordon, 3 Swanst. 463.

upon grounds which would not have been considered as satisfactory if the transaction had occurred between And these principles will apply strangers" (i). whether the doubtful points, with reference to which the compromise has been made, are matters of fact or of law (i). But in order that a transaction, not otherwise valid, may be supported upon the ground of its being a family arrangement, there must be a full and fair communication of all material circumstances affecting the subject-matter of the agreement, which are within the knowledge of the several parties, whether such information be asked for by the other party or not (k). "There must not only be good faith and honest intention, but full disclosure; and without full disclosure, honest intention is not sufficient" (l). And especially if parties are not on equal terms, and one of them stands in such a relation to the other as renders it incumbent on him to give a full account of the matter in dispute, to the utmost of his knowledge, and he omits to do so, the court, although no intentional fraud may be imputable to such person, will not support a compromise entered into between the parties (m).

Equity will not aid where position of parties has been altered.

And the disinclination of equity to set aside a family or other compromise entered into bonâ fide, and with a full disclosure of all facts known to either party, will be strengthened, where subsequent arrangements have taken place on the footing of such a compromise (n). But where there is a mixture of mistake of title, gross personal ignorance, liability to imposition, habitual

⁽i) Westby v. Westby, 2 Dr. & War. 503.
(j) Neale v. Neale, 1 Kee. 672; Westby v. Westby, 2 Dr. & War. 503.
(k) Greenwood v. Greenwood, 2 De G. Jo. & Sm. 28.

⁽¹⁾ Gordon v. Gordon, 3 Swanst. 400; De Cordova v. De Cordova, 4 App. Ca. 692.

⁽m) Pusey v. Desbourrie, 3 P. Wms. 315; Sturge v. Sturge, 12 Beav.

⁽n) Clifton v. Cockburn, 3 My. & K. 76; Bentley v. Mackay, 31 Beav. 143, 10 W. R. 873.

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intoxication, and want of professional advice, courts Secus,—where of equity have manifested a strong disinclination to gross ignorance or imposition. support a compromise, whether between members of a family or between strangers (o).

It has been already stated that where a bonâ fide Equity will purchaser for valuable consideration, without notice, is a bonâ fide concerned, equity will not interfere to grant relief in purchaser for value without favour of a party, although he has acted in ignorance notice. of his title upon a mistake of law; for in such a case the purchaser has at least an equal right to protection with the party who has committed the mistake; and where the equities are equal, the court will not interfere between the parties (p).

II. As to mistakes of fact, the general rule is that (II.) Mistake an act done, or contract made, under a mistake or in general rule ignorance of a material fact, is voidable and relievable relievable. in equity; for it is not possible that any one can, by any amount of diligence, acquire a knowledge of all matters of fact. With reference to this subject, the following general propositions may be laid down:—

1. The rule as to ignorance or mistake of a fact (a.) Principles entitling the party to relief, is to be taken with this lievable. important qualification,—that the fact must be material restricted to the act or contract; that is, that it must be essential to its character. For though there may be an accidental ignorance or mistake of a fact, yet, if the act or contract is not materially affected by it, the party claiming relief on that immaterial ground will be denied it. And the same principle is applicable though the mistake be mutual, as if a person should sell a messuage to another which was at the time

⁽o) Dunnage v. White, I Swanst. 137; Persse v. Persse, 7 C. & Fin. 318.
(p) Malden v. Menill, 2 Atk. 8.

swept away by a flood, without either party having any knowledge of the fact, equity would relieve the purchaser upon the ground that both parties intended the purchase and sale of a subsisting thing, and implied its existence as the basis of their contract (q).

- 2. Fact must be such as party could not get knowledge of by diligent inquiry.
- 2. It is not, however, sufficient in all cases to give the party relief, that the fact is material; but the fact must also be such as he could not by reasonable diligence get knowledge of, when he was put upon inquiry. For, if by such reasonable diligence he could have obtained knowledge of the fact, equity will not relieve him, since that would be to encourage culpable negligence.
- 3. Party havmust have been under an obligation to discover the fact.
- 3. In cases where one of the contracting parties ing knowledge has knowledge of a fact material to the contract which he does not communicate to the other, it is necessary, in order that the latter may set aside the transaction on the ground of such concealment, that the former should have been under an obligation, not merely moral, but legal or equitable, to make the discovery.
- 4. Where means of information are equally open to both, and no confidence reposed no relief.
- 4. Where the means of information are open to both parties, and where each is presumed to exercise his own skill, diligence, and judgment with regard to a subject-matter, where there is no confidence reposed, 'but each party is dealing with the other at arm's length, equity will not relieve. And, therefore, where the fact (not being a fact amounting to the entire subject-matter of the contract) is equally unknown to both parties; or where each has equal and adequate means of information; or where the fact is doubtful from its own nature; in every such case, if the parties

⁽q) Hore v. Becher, 12 Sim. 465; Cochrane v. Willis, L. R. 1 Ch.

have acted with entire good faith, a court of equity will not interpose (r).

The general ground upon which all these distinc-General tions proceed is, that mistake or ignorance of facts the principles in parties is a proper subject of relief only where it of relief. constitutes a material ingredient in the contract of the parties, or disappoints their intention by a mutual error; or where it is inconsistent with good faith, and proceeds from a violation of the obligations which are imposed by law upon the conscience of either party. But where each party is equally innocent, and there is no concealment of facts which the other party has a right to know, and no surprise or imposition exists, the mistake or ignorance, whether mutual or unilateral, is treated as laying no foundation for equitable interference (s).

It is a general rule of law that oral evidence shall Oral evidence in no case be received as equivalent to, or as a substi- proveaccident, tute for, a written instrument, where the latter is mistake, or fraud. required by law, or to give effect to a written instrument which is defective in any particular, which, by law, is essential to its validity; or to contradict, alter, or vary a written agreement, either appointed by law or by the compact of private parties, to be the appropriate and authentic memorial of the particular facts which it recites (t). But, upon principle, oral evidence is admissible to show that either by accident, mistake, or fraud, a written agreement has not been constituted the depository of the intention and meaning of the To enforce the performance of an agreement under such circumstances would be the highest injustice—it would be to allow an act, originating in innocence, to operate ultimately as a fraud, by en-

(t) 3 Starkie on Ev. 753.

⁽r) Mortimer v. Capper, 1 Bro. C. C. 158, 6 Ves. 24; Ainslie v. Medlycott, 9 Ves. 13:
(s) Jones v. Clifford, L. R. 3 Ch. Div. 779.

abling the party who receives the benefit of the mistake or accident, to resist the claims of justice, under shelter of a rule framed to promote it (u).

The general rule, as to the admissibility of evidence in cases of mistake, may be thus stated: --- Where, by mistake, an instrument inter vivos is not what parties intended, or there is a mistake in it, other than a mistake in law, and the mistake is clearly made out by admissible and satisfactory evidence, or is admitted by the other side (v), or is evident from the nature of the case, or from the rest of the deed, equity will rectify the mistake (w).

Mistake implied from nature of the case.

Courts of equity will grant relief in cases of mistake in written contracts, not only when the fact of the mistake is expressly established, but also when it is fairly implied from the nature of the transaction. Thus, a partnership debt has been treated in equity as the several debt of each partner, though, at law, it is the joint debt of all; because in such cases, all have had a benefit from the money advanced, or the credit given, and the obligation to pay exists independently of any instrument by which the debt may have been secured. So where a joint bond has in equity been considered as several, there has been a credit previously given to the different persons who have entered into the obligation. It was not the bond that first created the liability to pay (x).

Exception to last stated principle.

But where the inference of a several original debt or liability does not exist, a court of equity will not interfere unless there is evidence of mistake. The Master

⁽u) Murray v. Parker, 19 Beav. 308.

⁽v) Davis v. Symonds, I Cox. 404; Russel v. Davy, 6 Gr. 165.
(v) Davis v. Symonds, I Cox. 404; Russel v. Davy, 6 Gr. 165.
(w) Sm. Man. 49; Murray v. Parker, 19 Beav. 305; Fowler v. Fowler, 4 De G. & Jo. 250; Townshend v. Stangroom, 6 Ves. 333.
(x) Sumner v. Powell, 2 Mer. 36; Devaynes v. Noble, I Mer. 538; and see Kendall v. Hamilton, 3 C. P. Div. 403, and on appeal 4 App. Ca. 504 (the true nature of a partnership debt).

of the Rolls, in Sumner v. Powell (y), thus expresses himself:—"It has never been determined that every joint covenant is in equity to be considered as the several covenant of each of the covenantors. . . . When the obligation exists only by virtue of the covenant, its extent can be measured only by the words in which it is conceived. . . . But in this case the covenant is purely a matter of arbitrary convention, growing out of no antecedent liability in all or any of the covenantors to do what they have thereby undertaken. . . . It is not attempted to be shown that there was any mistake in drawing the deed, or that there was any agreement for a covenant of a different sort. There is nothing but the covenant itself, by which its intended extent can be ascertained. There is no ground, therefore, on which a court of equity can give it any other than its legal operation and effect" (z).

There is less difficulty in reforming written instru- (b.) Cases in ments where the mistake is mainly or wholly made which equity relieves out by other preliminary written instruments or memo-against mistake of fact. randa of the agreement. This is strongly illustrated (1.) Reculpicain cases of marriage settlements. With reference to TION OF MISTAKES IN these, the following cases may occur:-

MARRIAGE SETTLEMENTS.

(aa.) Both the marriage articles, as well as the defi- (aa.) Both nitive settlement, may exist before the marriage. In marriage articles and settlethis case, if the articles and the settlement vary in ment before their terms, the settlement will in general be consi-marriage. dered the binding instrument, and will not be controlled by the articles, because, as observed in Legg v. Goldwire (a), "When all parties are at liberty, the settlement will be taken as a new agreement."

(bb.) But where the settlement, though made before (bb.) Where

⁽y) 2 Mer. 36.

⁽z) Richardson v. Horton, 6 Beav. 187; Underhill v. Horwood, 10 Ves. 227-8; Rawstone v. Parr, 3 Russ. 424, 539.

⁽a) I L. C. 17.

pre-nuptial settlement purports to be in pursuance of the articles.

marriage, purports to be in pursuance of the articles entered into before marriage, and there is a variance, the settlement will be rectified in accordance with the articles (b).

(cc.) Extrinsic evidence admissible to show that prenuptial settlement was made in pursuance of articles.

(cc.) And even although a settlement made before marriage contains no reference to the articles, yet if it can be shown that the settlement was intended to be in pursuance of the articles, and there is clear and satisfactory evidence that the discrepancy has arisen from a mistake, the court will reform the settlement and make it conformable to the articles as expressing the real intention of the parties (c).

(dd.) Settlement after marriage. (dd:) Where the settlement is made after marriage, it will, in all cases, whether purporting to be made in pursuance of the pre-nuptial articles or not, be controlled and rectified by them (d).

In $Barrow\ v.\ Barrow\ (e)$, it was held that the erroneous belief by the husband and wife on their marriage that a particular property stood settled, was no ground for rectifying a settlement so as to make it include that property: "where a settlement has been executed which carried into effect a contract framed under a mistaken apprehension of the facts, and a marriage has been actually solemnised on the faith of that contract and that settlement, it would be to substitute a new contract between the parties, and not to carry the real contract into effect, if I were to alter the settlement" (f).

⁽b) West v. Erisey, I Bro. P. C. 225; Bold v. Hutchinson, 5 De G. M. & G. 568.

⁽c) Bold v. Hutchinson, 5 De G. M. & G. 558, 568; Breadalbane v. Chandos, 2 My. & Cr. 739.

⁽d) Legg v. Goldwire, I L. C. 17; Honor v. Honor, I P. Wms. 123; Mignan v. Parry, 31 Beav. 211.

⁽e) 18 Beav. 529. (f) Wilkinson v. Nelson, 9 W. R. 393.

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The court will not correct an instrument made in Mistake in consideration of marriage, except on evidence of the marriage contracts mistake of both parties. In a case (g) where the hus-must be of band alone laboured under a mistake, Kindersley, V.-C., said:—"The wife is bargaining for herself and her children, and the question always is, What is the contract on which the marriage took place? Here, so far as the wife's contract and understanding are concerned, the contract is the settlement as it stands, though the husband did not understand that it would affect his property " (h). Save and except in the case of marriage contracts, the mistake need not be that of both parties; the mistake of one will suffice.

Where an instrument has been delivered up or can- (2.) Instrucelled under a mistake of the party, and in ignorance up or can-of the facts material to the rights derived under it, a celled under a mistake. court of equity will in all cases grant relief, upon the ground that the party is conscientiously entitled to enforce such rights; and that he ought to have the same benefit as if the instrument were in his possession with its entire original validity (i).

As to the remedy offered by equity, in cases of (3.) Defective defective execution of powers, arising from mistake, powers. the same general principles are applicable as in cases of defective execution arising from accident (j).

In regard to mistakes in wills, there is no doubt (4.) Mistakes that courts of equity have jurisdiction to correct them in wills. when they are apparent upon the face of the will, or may be made out by a due construction of its terms, for in cases of wills the intention will prevail over the

⁽g) Sells v. Sells, I Dr. & Sm. 45.
(h) Thompson v. Whitmore, I J. & H. 268; Bradford v. Romney, 30

Beav. 431.
(i) East India Co. v. Donald, 9 Ves. 275. (j) See pp. 426-428, supra.

words. But then the mistake must be apparent on the face of the will, otherwise there can be no relief; for parol evidence or evidence dehors the will, is not admissible to vary or control the terms of the will, although it is admissible to remove a latent ambiguity (k).

(aa.) Mere misdescription of legatee will not defeat legacy, unless legacy obtained by a false personation.

(aa.) It is clear that in point of law, a mere misdescription of a legatee will not defeat the legacy. it is equally clear that wherever a legacy is given to a person under a particular character, which he has falsely assumed, and which can alone be supposed the motive of the bounty, the law will not permit him to avail himself of it; and therefore he cannot demand his legacy (l). Thus, where a woman gave a legacy to a man, describing him as her husband, when, in point of fact, the marriage was void, he having a former wife then living, the bequest was in equity held void (m). But when a testator made a will giving all his property to his wife, and appointing her sole executrix, and she (it was alleged) was not his lawful wife, having had a former husband living, the Court of Chancery in a very recent case declined jurisdiction, upon the ground that the matter was one for the Court of Probate (n),—a decision which goes far towards cutting away altogether the jurisdiction of the Chancery Division in the matter of mistakes in wills.

(bb.) Revocation of legacy on a mistake of facts.

(bb.) Where a legacy is given or revoked upon a mistake of facts, equity will give relief. Thus, if a testator revokes legacies to A. and B., giving as a reason that they are dead, and they are in fact living, equity will hold the revocation invalid, and decree the

⁽k) Milner v. Milner, I Ves. Sr. 106; Stebbing v. Walkey, 2 Bro. C. S5.

⁽¹⁾ Giles v. Giles, I Keen, 692. (m) Kennell v. Abbot, 4 Ves. 808.

⁽n) Meluish v. Milton, L. R. 3 Ch. Div. 27, following Allen v. M'Pherson, 1 H. L. C. 191.

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legacies (o). But a false reason given for a legacy, or for the revocation of a legacy, is not always a sufficient ground to avoid the act or bequest in equity. To have such an effect, it must be clear that no other motive mingled in the legacy, and that it constituted the substantial ground of the act or bequest (p). In Kennell v. Abbot (q), the Master of the Rolls thus expresses himself:—"I desire to be understood not to determine, that where, from circumstances not moving from himself, the description is inapplicable, as where a person is supposed to be a child of the testator, and from motives of love and affection for that child, supposing it to be his own, he has given a legacy to it, and it afterwards turns out that he was imposed upon, and the child was not his own, I am not disposed by any means to determine that the provision for that child should totally fail; for circumstances of personal affection to the child might mix with it, and might entitle him, though he might not fill that character in which the legacy is given. Neither would I have it understood that if a testator, in consequence of supposed affectionate conduct of his wife, being deceived by her, gives her a legacy as to his chaste wife, evidence of her violation of her marriage vow could be given against that. It would open too wide a field."

Finally, it must be remembered, that in all cases of Cases in which relief by aiding or correcting defects or mistakes, the equity will not relief by aiding or correcting defects or mistakes, the relieve against party seeking relief must stand upon some equity a mistake of factsuperior to that of the party against whom he asks it. (1.) The party If the equities are equal, a court of equity is silent and must have passive. Thus, equity will not give relief as against a superior equity. $bon\hat{a}$ fide purchaser for valuable consideration (r).

⁽o) Campbell v. French, 3 Ves. 321. (p) Box v. Barrett, L. R. 3 Eq. 244.

⁽q) 4 Ves. 808. (r) Powell v. Price, z P. Wms. 535; Davies v. Davies, 4 Beav. 54; Thompson v. Simpson, I Dr. & War. 491.

(2.) No relief as between volunteers. Nor will equity relieve one person claiming under a voluntary defective conveyance against another claiming also under a voluntary conveyance, but will leave the parties to their rights at law (s).

(3.) Or where defect is declared fatal by statute.

Nor will the remedial powers of courts of equity extend to the supplying of any circumstances, for the want of which the legislature has declared an instrument void; for otherwise, equity would in effect defeat the very policy of the legislative enactments (t).

(s) Moodie v. Reid, 1 Mad. 516.

⁽t) Hibbert v. Rolleston, 3 Bro. C. C. 571; Dixon v. Ewart, 3 Mer. 322.

CHAPTER III.

ACTUAL FRAUD.

It may be laid down as a general rule that courts of Fraud. equity exercise a general jurisdiction in cases of fraud. sometimes concurrent with, and sometimes exclusive of, the common law courts. There are a variety of In what cases cases of fraud for which the common law affords com-equity. plete and adequate relief, and with reference to these cases, Chancery may be said to possess a general and perhaps a universal concurrent jurisdiction. That court would not, however, have readily interfered to stay proceedings at law, where the plaintiff's case in equity might have been pleaded as a defence to the action, and complete justice might thereby be done at law (a); and, of course, since the Judicature Acts, equity cannot now stay any proceedings at law, but the parties may move (in a proper case) to have the action transferred to the Chancery Division. Moreover, there were many cases in which fraud was utterly irremediable at law, and over these courts of equity had an exclusive jurisdiction, and they still in substance retain it.

"As to relief against frauds, no invariable rules can No invariable be established. Fraud is infinite; and were a court of equity once to lay down rules how far they would go, and no farther, in extending their relief against it, or to define strictly the species or evidence of it, the jurisdiction would be cramped and perpetually eluded

⁽a) Hoare v. Bremridge, L. R. 8 Ch. 22.

by new schemes, which the fertility of man's invention would contrive " (b).

To attempt, therefore, the definition of a subject so varied and diversified in its forms as fraud, would scarcely be judicious or useful, if it were possible. The mode and extent of the equity jurisdiction over fraud will best be illustrated by the examination of a few of the more marked classes of cases, in which the principles which regulate the action of courts of equity are fully developed, and from which analogies may be drawn to guide us in the investigation of other and novel circumstances.

Equity acts upon weaker evidence than law in inferring fraud.

Before, however, proceeding to those subjects it may be proper to observe that although courts of law, equally with courts of equity, hold that fraud is not to be presumed, the latter courts used to act upon circumstances as presumptions of fraud, where courts of common law would not have deemed them satisfactory proofs. In other words, courts of equity would grant relief upon the ground of fraud established by presumptive evidence, which evidence courts of law would not always deem sufficient proof to justify a verdict at law (c). Or, to express the matter rather more fairly. various circumstances (which at law would not have weighed materially with a jury) were permitted by the Vice-Chancellor, drawing inferences from his varied experience of like transactions, to influence his mind in arriving at his own conclusions upon the case; for the student should always bear in mind, that nothing is or can be evidence in equity which is not evidence also at law.

 ⁽b) Park's Hist. of Chan. 508.
 (c) Chesterfield v. Janssen, I L. C. 551; Fullager v. Clarke, 18
 Ves. 483.

The subject of fraud may be divided into two sections,—Actual Fraud and Constructive Fraud.

An Actual Fraud may be defined as something said Actual fraud. done or omitted, with the design of perpetrating what the party must have known to be a positive fraud (d).

Actual frauds are of two kinds (e)-

Of two kinds.

- I. Frauds arising irrespectively of any peculiarity in the position of the injured party; and,
- II. Frauds arising chiefly from a consideration of the peculiar position of the injured party.
- I. (a.) One of the largest classes of cases in which I. Arising courts of equity are accustomed to grant relief is where of position of there has been a misrepresentation, or suggestio falsi. injured party. With reference to this subject the following proposi-sentation. tions may be laid down:—

Where a party intentionally, or by design, misrepresents a material fact, or produces a false impression it intention in order to mislead another, or to entrap or cheat him ally. Or to obtain an undue advantage over him, in every such case there is a positive fraud, in the truest sense of the term (f). And what is more, every man must Misreprebe held responsible for the consequences of a false sentation representation made by him to another, upon which a intent to mislead a third person acts, and so acting is injured or damnified; party. provided it appear that such false representation was made with the intent that it should be acted upon by such third person in the manner that occasions the injury or loss, and provided the injury be the immediate and not the remote consequence of the representation thus made (g).

⁽d) Sm. Man. 56. (e) Sm. Man. 58.

⁽f) Hill v. Lane, L. R. 11 Eq. 215. (g) Barry v. Croskey, 2 Johns. & Hem. 22; Attorney-General v. Ray, L. R. 9 Ch. 397.

Where party did not know his assertion to be true. And not only does fraud exist where the statements are known to be false by those who make them, but a case of fraud is also constituted where statements, false in fact, are made by persons who do not know them to be true or false, or who believe them to be true, if, in the due discharge of their duty, they ought to have known, or if they had formerly known and ought to have remembered the fact, which negatives the representation made (h).

What misrepresentations entitled to relief.

(i.) Misrepresentation must be of some material fact, i.e., it must be a case of fraus dans locum contractui.

As a matter of conscience, any deviation from the most exact and scrupulous sincerity is contrary to the good faith that ought to prevail in contracts. courts of justice generally find themselves compelled to assign limits to the exercise of their jurisdiction, far short of the principles deducible ex æquo et bono; and with reference to the concerns of human life, they endeavour to aim at mere practical good and general convenience. Accordingly, therefore, a misrepresentation, in order to justify the rescission of a contract, must be as to some material fact constituting an inducement or motive to the act or omission of the other "To use the expression of the Roman law, party. it must be a fraus dans locum contractui, that is, a misrepresentation giving occasion to the contract; the proper interpretation of which appears to me to be the assertion of a fact on which the person entering into the contract relied, and in the absence of which it is reasonable to infer that he would not have entered into the contract; or the suppression of a fact, the knowledge of which it is reasonable to infer would have made him abstain from the contract altogether (i).

(2.) Misrepre-

In the next place, the misrepresentation must (at

⁽h) Pulsford v. Richards, 17 Beav. 94; Rawlins v. Wickham, 1 Giff.
355; 3 De G. & Jo. 304.
(i) Pulsford v. Richards, 17 Beav. 96.

least, in cases of vendor and purchaser) be not only in sentation must something material, but it must be something in regard thing in which to which the one party places a known trust or confidence reposed. dence in the other.

For if the purchaser, choosing to judge for himself, Mere puffing, does not avail himself of the knowledge, or means of with opporknowledge, open to him or his agents, he cannot be mine, is no misrepresentaheard to say that he was deceived by the vendor's tion. misrepresentations, for the rule in such a case is careat emptor. To this ground of unreasonable indiscretion and confidence, may be referred the common language of puffing and commendation of commodities, which, however reprehensible in morals, as gross exaggerations or departures from truth, are nevertheless not treated as frauds which will avoid contracts. Simplex commendatio non obligat. Further. the alleged misrepresentation must not be a mere matter of opinion, equally open to both parties for examination and inquiry, where neither party is presumed to trust the other, but to rely on his own judgment.

In the next place, the party must be misled by the (3.) The party misrepresentation; for if he knows it to be false when led by the made it cannot influence his conduct, and it is his own representation to his prejuindiscretion, and not any fraud or surprise, of which he dice. has any just complaint to make under such circumstances (i). And further, the party must have been misled to his prejudice or injury; for courts of equity do not, any more than courts of law, sit for the purpose of enforcing moral obligations, or correcting unconscientious acts, which are followed by no loss or damage (k).

⁽j) Nelson v. Stocker, 4 De G. & Jo. 458.
(k) Slim v. Croucher, 1 De G. F. & J. 518; Fellowes v. Gwydyr, 1 Sim. 63.

Fraud, consisting in misrepresentations by directors of companies.

In the case of misrepresentations made by the directors of joint-stock and other companies, the company is responsible for the damage to the extent of the profits it has made thereby, and otherwise the remedy is against the directors personally (l). Further, the defrauded person may in such a case recover, or (as the case may be) prove for, the amount paid by him to the company (m). As regards the fraudulent directors, they are jointly and severally liable, and the action may therefore be brought against one or more of them alone without the other or others (n). But, nota bene, no action lies against the executor of a deceased fraudulent director, unless to the extent (if any) that his estate has profited thereby (o).

Remedy, where misrepresentation can be made good, and where it cannot. Where a person has been induced to enter into a contract by a material misrepresentation of the other party, the latter shall be compelled to make it good at the option of the former, if the representation be one which can be made good; if not, the person deceived shall be at liberty to avoid the contract (p).

Defences against action: (r.) The plaintiff was particeps fraudis.

A person cannot avail himself of what has been obtained by the fraud of another, unless he is not only free from any participation in the fraud, but also has given some valuable consideration (q). Otherwise, he who takes the property, as was said in $Bridgeman \ v$. Green (r), "must take it tainted and infected with the imposition of the person procuring the gift: his partitioning and cantoning it out amongst his relations

⁽¹⁾ Western Bank of Scotland v. Addie, L. R. 1 Sc. App. 145.

⁽m) Allison's case, L. R. 15 Eq. 394. (n) Parker v. Lewis, L. R. 8 Ch. App. 1035. (o) Peek v. Gurney, L. R. 6 H. L. 377.

⁽p) Pulsford v. Richards, 17 Beav. 95; Rawlins v. Wickham, 3 De G. & Jo. 304, 322; Attorney-General v. Ruy, L. R. 9 Ch. 397.

[&]amp; 30. 304, 322; Attorney-General V. Ray, L. R. 9 Ch. 397.

(q) Scholefield v. Templer, 4 De G. & Jo. 433; Vane v. Vane, L. R.

⁸ Ch. 383. (r) Wilm. 64.

and friends will not purify the gift, and protect it against the equity of the person imposed upon. Let the hand receiving it be ever so chaste, yet, if it comes through a polluted channel, the obligation of restitution will follow it"

The defrauded party may, by his subsequent acts, (2.) The plainwith full knowledge of the fraud, deprive himself of all quent ratifiright to relief, as well in equity, as at law; as if with cation. full knowledge of the fraud he gives a release to the party who has defrauded him, or has continued to deal with him after he knew all the facts (s).

(b.) Another class of cases for relief in equity, is (b.) Suppression where there is an undue concealment, or suppressio veri, of relief, only to the injury or prejudice of another. A suppressio veri where the party was is as fatal as a suggestio falsi. It is not every conceal- under a legal ment, however, even of facts that are material to the obligation to disclose. interests of a party, which will entitle him to the interposition of a court of equity, and in this respect concealment differs from misrepresentation. The case must amount to the suppression of facts which one party, under the circumstances, is bound in conscience and duty to disclose to the other party, in respect of which he cannot be innocently silent, and which the other party has a right, not merely in foro conscientice, but in foro juridico, to know (t).

Thus, it was said by Lord Thurlow in Fox v. Mac-Purchase of kreth (u), that if A., knowing of a mine on the estate mine unof B., of which he knows B. to be ignorant, should, known to vendor, but concealing the fact, enter into a contract to purchase known to that estate for a price which it would be worth, without considering the mine, the contract would be good. In such cases, the question is not whether an advan-

(u) 2 Bro. C. C. 420.

⁽s) St. 203 (a); Vigers v. Pike, 8 Cl. & Fin. 562, 630.

⁽t) Fox v. Mackreth, I L. C. 123; Turner v. Harvey, Jacob, 178.

tage has been taken, which in point of morals is wrong or which a man of delicacy would not have taken. But it is essentially necessary, in order to set aside the transaction, not only that a great advantage should be taken, but also to show some obligation binding the party to make the discovery.

Sale of land subject to incumbrances known only to vendor. On the other hand, if a vendor should sell an estate knowing he had no title to it, or knowing that there were incumbrances on it of which the vendee was ignorant, the suppression of such a material fact, in respect of which the vendor must know, that the very purchase implied a trust and confidence on the part of the vendee, that no such defect existed, would clearly avoid the sale on the ground of fraud (v).

As to intrinsic defect in personal chattels, caveat emptor. Unless there be some artifice or warranty. Or vendor was bound to discusse.

In many cases, especially in the case of sales of personal chattels, the maxim caveat emptor is applied; and unless there be some misrepresentation or artifice to disguise the thing sold, or some warranty as to its character or quality, and unless the vendor is under some obligation to make a disclosure, the vendee is understood to be bound by the sale, notwithstanding there may be any intrinsic defects in it known to the vendor, but unknown to the vendee, materially affecting its value, and regarding which the vendor has merely held his tongue. Nam qui tacet, non videtur affirmare (w.

Silence tantamount to direct affirmation,—but in exceptional cases only, e.g.— Cases of insurance, But there are, on the other hand, certain cases where, from the very nature of the transaction, the silence of the party—his mere concealment of a fact—must import as much as a direct affirmation, and be deemed equivalent to it. Cases of insurance afford a ready

(w) Martin v. Morgan, I Brod. & Bing. 289; Walker v. Symonds, 3 Swanst. 62.

⁽v) Arnot v. Biscoe, I Ves. Sr. 95, 97; Edwards v. M'Leay, 2 Swanst. 287; Ellard v. Llandaff, I Ball. & B. 241.

illustration of this doctrine. In such cases the underwriter necessarily reposes a trust and confidence in the insured, as to all facts and circumstances which are peculiarly within his (the insured's) own knowledge, and which are not of a public and general nature, or which the underwriter either knows or is bound to know. Indeed, most of the facts and circumstances which may affect the risk are generally within the knowledge of the insured only; and therefore, the underwriter may be said emphatically to place trust and confidence in him as to all such matters. And hence, the general principle is, that in all cases of insurance the insured is bound to communicate to the underwriter all facts and circumstances, material to the risk, within his knowledge; and if they are withheld, whether the concealment be by design or by accident, it is equally fatal to the contract (x).

Inadequacy of consideration, or any other inequality Inadequacy of in the bargain, is not to be understood as constituting, per se will not per se, a ground to avoid a bargain in equity (y). For avoid a contract. courts of equity, as well as of law, act upon the ground that every person who is not, from his peculiar circumstances or condition, under disability, is entitled to dispose of his property in such manner, and upon such terms, as he chooses. Besides, the value of a thing is what it will produce, in its nature fluctuating, and depending on a thousand different circumstances. man, in the disposal of his property, may sell it for less than another would. He may sell it under a pressure of circumstances which may induce him to part with it at a particular time. On the other hand, the sole inducement to a purchaser may be the low-

G. M. & G. 424.

⁽x) Pole v. Fitzgerald, 4 Bro. P. C. 439; De Costa v. Scandret, 2 P. Wms. 170; Proudfoot v. Montefiore, L. R. 2 Q. B. 511. See also London Assurance Co. v. Mansel, 11 Ch. Div. 363.

(y) Abbot v. Sworder, 4 De G. & Sm. 448; Harrison v. Guest, 6 De

ness of the price; or the purchaser may have simply accepted the proposals of the vendor, instead of being the originator of the transaction, like a man whose design is to gain a fraudulent advantage over another (z).

Inadequacy may be eviespecially an inadequacy shocking the conscience, or coupled with other circumstances of suspicion.

Still, however, there may be such unconscionablemay be evidence of fraud, ness or inadequacy in a bargain as to demonstrate per se some gross imposition or undue influence; and in such cases courts of equity will interfere upon the an inadequacy ground of inadequacy alone. But then such unconscionableness or such inadequacy should be made out as would shock the conscience, and would amount in itself to conclusive and decisive evidence of fraud. And where the inadequacy is not of that shocking character, but there are other ingredients in the case of a suspicious nature, the inadequacy furnishes the most vehement presumption of fraud (a); as if proper time is not allowed to the party, and he acts improvidently; if he is importunately pressed; if those in whom he places confidence make use of strong persuasions; if he is not fully aware of the consequences, but is suddenly drawn into the act; if he is not permitted to consult disinterested friends or counsel before he is called upon to act in circumstances of sudden emergency or unexpected right or acquisition; in these, and many like cases, if there has been gross inequality in the bargain, courts of equity will set aside the contract at the instance of the party defrauded.

> However, suspicious circumstances are many times explained away consistently with truth and fairness, and even an apparent inadequacy may not be a real inadequacy when everything is known. Harrison v. Guest (b), where, after the death of a

Harrison v. Guest,-an

⁽z) Sm. Man. 64.

⁽a) Harrison v. Guest, 6 De G. M. & G. 424. (b) 6 De G. M. & G. 424.

vendor, the sale was impeached by his representatives, apparent inon the ground that at the time of the sale he was an adequacy explainable illiterate, bed-ridden old man of seventy-one years of away. age, and had acted without independent professional advice, and had conveyed away the property in question, of the value of £400, for the consideration of a provision by way of board and lodging during his life, which only endured six weeks after the conveyance, it was held that, in the absence of any fraud, and the evidence showing that he had declined to employ professional advice for himself, such a transaction was not impeachable on the mere ground of the apparent inadequacy of consideration (c).

Moreover, courts of equity will not relieve in all Equity will cases, even of very gross inadequacy, attended with not aid where parties circumstances which might otherwise induce them to cannot be placed in statu quo; as, for statu quo. instance, in cases of marriage settlements, for the court cannot unmarry the parties (d).

Contracts affected with fraud are in general voidable Fraudulent only, and not void; consequently, such a contract is usually valid, valid until it is rescinded. The rescission may become until avoided. impossible after the rights of third parties have intervened. Thus, a fraudulent contract cannot be rescinded after the commencement of the winding up of the company (e). A de facto removal of the shareholder's name from the register, or even the commencement of an action for the removal, is, however, a sufficient repudiation of the fraudulent contract.

If the fraudulent contract should in any case be void, then no repudiation of it is required.

⁽c) Abbot v. Sworder, 4 De G. & S. 448; Longmate v. Ledger, 2 Giff. 157. (d) North v. Ansell, 2 P. Wms. 619.

⁽e) Spackman v. Evans, L. R. 3 H. L. 171; Oakes v. Turquand, L. R. 2 H. L. 325.

Occasionally, however, contracts for shares, although fraudulent, are not avoidable at all; thus, if A. by fraud induces B. to buy A.'s shares, and the company is not implicated in A.'s fraud,—then of course the contract will hold good as between B. and the company; and B.'s remedy (if any) is against A. only, and is for a retransfer of the shares and an indemnity (f); and the rule is the same, even if A. be a director of the company.

Frauds, which are so by force of statute merely.

There are a few frauds in relation to companies, which are frauds by force of statute merely. under the 164th section of the Companies Act, 1862, any conveyance, mortgage, &c., which in the case of an individual trader would be a fraudulent preference on his bankruptcy under the 92d section of the Bankruptcy Act, 1869, is a fraudulent preference also on the winding up of a company. And under the 38th section of the Companies Act, 1867, the non-disclosure of contracts between the promoters of a projected company and the persons contracting with them, if the contracts are of a kind to influence the prospective shareholders, renders the prospectus fraudulent (g), the promoters, when at least they are the sole source of information, or are otherwise bound to disclose, being in a sort of fiduciary relation and liable for concealment as well as for misrepresentation (h).

II. Cases of fraud arising from the condition of the injured parties. Free and full consent necessary to every agreement. II. Cases of fraud arising chiefly from the peculiar condition of the injured parties.

The general theory of the law, in regard to acts done and contracts made by parties, affecting their rights and interests, is that in all such cases there must be

⁽f) Kerr on Fraud, 273.

⁽g) New Sombrero Phosphate Co. v. Erlanger, 6 Ch. Div. 73; 3 App. Ca. 1218.

⁽h) Kerr on Fraud, p. 65; Buckley on Companies Acts, 2d edition, p. 482.

a free and full consent to bind the parties. Consent is an act of reason, accompanied with deliberation. the mind weighing, as in a balance, the good and evil on each side. And, therefore, it has been well remarked that every true consent supposes three things: first, a physical power; secondly, a moral power; and thirdly, a serious and free use of them.

Gifts and legacies are often bestowed upon persons Gifts and upon condition that they shall not marry without the condition consent of parents, guardians, or other confidential against marrying without persons. In such cases, the doctrine is now firmly consent. established that courts of equity will not suffer the manifest object of the condition to be defeated by the fraud, or dishonest, corrupt, or unreasonable refusal of the party whose consent is required to the marriage (i).

I. Hence it is that the contracts and other acts of 1. Persons persons non compotes mentis (not so found by inquisi-non compotes mentis,tion and à fortiori if so found), wherever, from the their contracts are usually nature of the transaction, there is not entire good faith, void. or the contract or other act is not seen to be just in itself, or for the benefit of those persons, will be set aside in a court of equity. But where a contract But a conis entered into with good faith, and is for the benefit tract with a of such persons, such as for necessaries, courts of equity, good faith, and for his as well as of law, will uphold the transaction; also, benefit, will be upheld. if a purchase is made in good faith, without any knowledge of the incapacity, and no advantage has been taken of the party, courts of equity will not interfere to set aside the contract, if injustice will thereby be done to the other side, and the parties cannot be placed in statu quo, or in the state in which they were before the purchase (i).

⁽i) Dashwood v. Bulkeley, 10 Ves. 245; Clarke v. Parker, 19 Ves. 18. (j) Manby v. Bewicke, 3 K. & J. 342.

2. Drunkenness, amounting to a want of understanding, contracts how affected by.

2. But to set aside any act or contract on account of drunkenness it is not sufficient that the party is under undue excitement or lethargy from liquor. excitement or lethargy must rise to that degree in which the party is utterly deprived for the time of the use of his reason and understanding; for in such a case there can in no just sense be said to be a serious and deliberate consent on his part. If there be not that degree of excitement or of lethargy, then courts of equity will not interfere at all, at least upon the mere ground of drunkenness; but, of course, there may have been some contrivance or management to draw the party into drink, or some unfair advantage taken of his intoxication, and in that case, the court might relieve. In general, courts of equity, as a matter of public policy, do not incline, on the one hand, to lend their assistance to a person who has obtained a deed or agreement from another in a state of intoxication; and on the other hand, they are equally unwilling to assist the intoxicated party (unless he was wholly incapacitated as aforesaid) to get rid of his agreement or deed merely on the ground of his intoxication at the time; but they leave the parties to their ordinary remedies at law, unless there is some contrivance or some imposition practised (k).

Parties left to their remedy at law.

3. Imbecile persons.

3. Closely allied to the foregoing are cases, where a person, although not positively non compos, or insane, is yet of such great weakness of mind as to be unable to guard himself against imposition, or to resist importunity, or undue influence. In such cases, if the circumstances justify the conclusion that the party has been imposed on or circumvented, the transaction will be held void in equity; and the burden of proof is on the other party, to show that no unfair advantage was

taken of his weakness, and that a fair price was given to him (l).

- 4. Cases of an analogous nature may be easily put, 4. Persons of where the party is subjected for the time to undue competent understanding influence, although in other respects and at other times under undue influence. he is of competent understanding; as where he does an act or makes a contract when he is under duress, (a.) Duress. or under the influence of extreme terror, or of threats. or of apprehensions short of duress. For in cases of this sort he has no free will, but stands in vinculis. And the constant rule in equity is, that where a party is not a free agent, and is not equal to protecting himself, the court will protect him (m). Circumstances also of extreme necessity and distress of the party, (b.) Extreme although not accompanied by any direct restraint or necessity. duress, may in like manner justify the court in setting aside a contract by him, on account of some oppression, or fraudulent advantage, or imposition attendant upon it (n).
- 5. The acts and contracts of infants (not being for (5.) Infants. necessaries) are not as a general rule binding upon them, because the presumption of the law is that they have not sufficient reason or discernment of understanding to bind themselves. There are indeed certain cases in which infants are permitted by law to bind themselves by their acts and contracts; for, not to mention contracts for necessaries suitable to their degree and quality, which are, of course, binding upon them, they are also bound by a contract of hiring and services for wages, or by some act which the law requires them to do. But generally infants are favoured by the law, as

⁽l) Longmate v. Ledger, 2 Giff. 164. (m) Evans v. Llewellyn, 1 Cox, 340; Hawes v. Wyatt, 3 Bro. C. C. 158: M'Cann v. Dempsey, 6 Gr. 192.

⁽n) St. 239; Gould v. Okeden, 4 Bro. P. C. 198; Farmer v. Farmer, I H. L. Cas. 724; Boyse v. Rossborough, 6 H. L. Cas. 2, 49.

well as by equity, in all things which are for their benefit, and are saved from being prejudiced by anything to their disadvantage. But this rule is designed as a shield for their own protection, and not as a means to perpetrate a fraud or injustice on others; at least, not where courts of equity have authority to reach it in cases of meditated fraud (o).

There is an important difference between the acts and contracts of infants on the one hand, and those of lunatics, idiots, &c., on the other. The act or contract of a lunatic or idiot is, ab initio, void, and can never be validated in any mode. But in regard to the acts and contracts of infants, some are wholly void, others are merely avoidable. Where they are utterly void, they are from the beginning mere nullities, and incapable of operation. But where they are voidable, it is in the election of the infant to avoid them or not, when he arrives at full age. In general, where a contract may be for the benefit, or to the prejudice, of an infant, he may avoid it as well at law as in equity. Where it can never be for his benefit, it is utterly void; and under the Infants' Relief Act, 1874 (p), money-lending and money-raising contracts and all other contracts (not being for necessaries) are made utterly void, and not confirmable by the infant upon his attaining his full age.

6. Femes covert have not a general capaat law, but may do so as to their separate estate in to their statutory separate estate both at law and in equity.

6. In regard to femes covert the case is still stronger: for, generally speaking, at law they have no capacity city to contract to do any acts, or to enter into any contracts, and such acts and contracts are treated as mere nullities. Courts of equity, however, have broken in upon this doctrine, equity, and as and have in many respects treated the wife as capable of disposing of her own separate property, and of doing other acts, as if she were a feme sole. In cases of this

⁽o) Lempriere v. Lange, W. N. 1879, 158.

⁽p) 37 & 38 Vict., c. 62. See Coxhead v. Mullis, 3 C. P. Div. 439.

sort, the same principles will apply to the acts and contracts of a married woman, as would apply to her as a *feme sole*, unless the circumstances give rise to a presumption of fraud, imposition, unconscionable advantage, or undue influence. And now under the Married Women's Property Act, 1870, a married woman may maintain an action in her own name for the recovery, and has the same remedies, civil as well as criminal, for the protection of property declared by the Act to be her separate property, as though she were a *feme sole* (q).

⁽q) 33 & 34 Vict., c. 93, s. 11.

CHAPTER IV.

CONSTRUCTIVE FRAUD.

Constructive fraud.

By Constructive Frauds are meant such acts or contracts as, although not originating in any actual design or contrivance to perpetrate a positive fraud or injury upon other persons, are yet, by their tendency to deceive or mislead other persons, or to violate private or public confidence, or to impair or injure the public interests, deemed equally reprehensible with positive fraud, and therefore are prohibited by law, as being acts and contracts done *malo animo*.

Three classes.

The cases under this head may be divided into three classes.

- I. Cases of constructive fraud, so called because they are contrary to some general public policy, or to the policy of the law.
- II. Constructive frauds, which arise from the abuse of some peculiar, confidential, or fiduciary relation between the parties.
- III. Constructive frauds, which unconscientiously compromit, or injuriously affect, or operate substantially as frauds upon the private rights, interests, duties, or intentions of the parties themselves, or of third persons.
- I. Construc-
- I. Cases of constructive fraud, so called because they

are contrary to some general public policy, or to some tive frauds as fixed artificial policy of the law. policy of the

Marriage brokage contracts, by which a person (I.) Marriage engages to give another some reward or remuneration brokage contracts. if he will negotiate a marriage for him, are utterly void (a) and incapable of confirmation (b); and money paid pursuant to such contracts may be recovered back in equity (c).

On the same principle, every contract by which a (2.) Reward parent or guardian obtains any remuneration for pro- to parent or guardian to moting or consenting to the marriage of his child or consent to marriage of ward is void (d).

The same principle pervades that class of cases (3.) Secret where persons, upon a treaty of marriage, by any con-agreements in fraud of marcealment or misrepresentation, mislead other parties, riage. or do acts which are by other secret agreements reduced to mere forms, or become inoperative. Thus, where a man, on the treaty for the marriage of his sister, let her have money privately, in order that her portion might appear as large as was insisted on by the intended husband, and she gave a bond to her brother for the payment of it, it was decreed to be delivered up (e).

The same rules are applied to cases where bonds (4.) Rewards are given, or other agreements made, as a reward for given for influencing using influence and power over another person to another person induce him to make a will in favour of the obligor, will. and for his benefit; for all such contracts tend to

⁽a) Hall v. Potter, Show, P. C. 76.
(b) Cole v. Gibson, I Ves. Sr. 503; Roberts v. Roberts, 3 P. Wms. 74.
(c) Smith v. Bruning, 2 Vern. 392.
(d) Keat v. Allen, 2 Vern. 588.

⁽e) Gale v. Lindo, I Vern. 475; Palmer v. Neave, 11 Ves. 165; Redman v. Redman, I Vern. 348; Neville v. Wilkinson, I Bro. C. C. 543.

deceive and injure others, and encourage artifices and improper attempts to control the exercise of their free judgment (f).

(5.) Contracts in general restraint of marriage void. Contracts in general restraint of marriage are void, as against public policy, and the due economy and morality of domestic life; and so, if a condition is not in restraint of marriage generally, but still the prohibition is of so rigid a nature, or so tied up to peculiar circumstances, that the party upon whom it is to operate is unreasonably restrained in the choice of marriage, it will fall under the like consideration. Thus, where a legacy was given to a daughter, on condition that she should not marry a man who was not seised of an estate in fee simple of the clear yearly value of £500, it was held to be a void condition, as leading to a probable prohibition of marriage (g).

(6.) Contracts in general restraint of trade void, but not special restraints.

Contracts in general restraint of trade are also void, as tending to promote monopolies, and to discourage industry, enterprise, and just competition. But the same reasoning does not apply to a limited restraint of trade, e.g., not to carry on trade at a particular place, or with particular persons, or for a limited reasonable time; and a person may lawfully sell a secret in his trade or business, and restrain himself from using that secret (h).

(7.) Agreements founded on violation of public confidence.

In like manner, agreements which are founded upon violations of public trust or confidence, or of the rules adopted by courts in furtherance of the administration of public justice, are held void. Thus, contracts for

⁽f) Debenham v. Ox, I Ves. 276.

⁽g) Keily v. Monck, 3 Ridg. P. C. 205; Scott v. Tyler, 2 L. C. 115. (h) St. 292; Bryson v. Whitehead, 1 Sim. & Stu. 74; Benwell v. Inns, 24 Beav. 307; Harms v. Parson, 32 Beav. 328.

the buying, selling, or procuring of public offices (i), As buying agreements founded on the suppression of criminal and selling offices. prosecutions (j), contracts which have a tendency to encourage champerty (k), and generally all agreements founded upon corrupt considerations or moral turpitude, whether they stand prohibited by statute or not, are treated as frauds upon public policy or public law.

By the Companies Act 1862, § 22, shares in joint-(8.) Frauds, in stock companies are made freely transferable, the mode transfer of of transfer being that prescribed by the regulations of shares in joint-stock the company. But a transfer that is subject to some companies. reservation in favour of the transferor is no transfer. so as to get rid of liability for calls; such a pretended transfer is, in fact, fraudulent (1). Also, when the directors have (as they usually have) a right of rejecting proposed transferees, any concealment or misrepresentation materially affecting the worth of the proposed transferee would be an actual fraud, and not constructive merely, and would render the transfer invalid (i.e., voidable) even although accepted (m); but it is otherwise when the directors have no power of rejection (n).

And again, as between trustees and cestuis que trustent, the trustee whose name is on the register is liable and not the cestui que trust, but the trustee (where the investment is proper) has the usual right of indemnity (o); but where the shares are placed in the name of the trustee only colourably, and for the purpose of

⁽i) Chesterfield v. Janssen, I Atk. 352; Hartwell v. Hartwell, 4 Ves. 811.

⁽j) Johnson v. Ogilby, 3 P. Wms. 277. (k) Powell v. Knowler, 2 Atk. 224; Reynell v. Sprye, 1 De G. M. &

⁽¹⁾ De Pass's Case, 4 De Gex. & Jo. 544; Hyam's Case, 1 D. F. & J.

⁽m) Ex parte Kintrea, L. R. 5 Ch. App. 95. (n) Battie's Case, 39 L. J. Ch. 391.

⁽o) City of Glasgow Bank Cases, 4 App. Ca. 547-581.

merely evading the legal liability, the cestui que trust would be liable (p).

Neither party to an illegal agreement is aided, as a general rule. In general, where parties are concerned in illegal agreements, whether they are mala prohibita or mala in se, courts of equity, following the rule of law as to participators in a common fraud, will not interpose to grant any relief, acting upon the well-known maxim, In pari delicto potior est conditio possidentis (q). But in cases where the agreement is repudiated on account of its being against public policy, the circumstance that the relief is asked by a party who is particeps fraudis, is not in equity material. The reason is, that the public interest requires that relief should be given, and it is given to the public through the party (r), and not to the party, excepting as an indirect consequence occasionally.

Except where agreement is contrary to public policy.

II. Constructive frauds arising from the fiduciary relation.

II. Constructive frauds which arise from the abuse of some peculiar, confidential, or fiduciary relation between the parties.

In this class of cases there is often to be found some intermixture of deceit, imposition, over-reaching, unconscionable advantage, or other mark of direct fraud. But the principle on which courts of equity act in regard thereto, stands independent of any such ingredients, upon a motive of general public policy. The general principle which governs in all cases of this sort is, that if confidence is reposed, and that confidence is abused, courts of equity will grant relief.

(1.) Gifts from

In the first place, as to the relation of parent and

⁽p) Cox's Case, 4 De Gex. Jo. & Sm. 53.

⁽q) Howson v. Hancock, 8 T. R. 675; Osborne v. Williams, 18 Ves.

<sup>379.
(</sup>r) St. John v. St. John, 11 Ves. 535; Roberts v. Roberts, 3 P. Wms. 66; Smith v. Bromley, Dougl. R. 696; Rider v. Kidder, 10 Ves. 360.

child, all contracts and conveyances whereby benefits child to parent are secured by children to their parents, or to persons void if not in perfect good who stand in loco parentis, are the objects of the court's faith. jealousy, and if they are not entered into with scrupulous good faith, and are not reasonable under the circumstances, they will be set aside, unless third parties have acquired an interest under them (s). And Gift by child where a child, shortly after attaining his or her shortly after minority. majority, makes over property to his or her father without consideration, or for an inadequate consideration, equity will require the father to show that the child was really a free agent, and had adequate and independent advice (t). And conversely in a recent By father Canadian case, a deed of gift, executed by a father when infirm infirm in mind and body in favour of one of his sons, body. was ordered to be given up and cancelled (u).

In the next place, as to the relation of guardian (2.) Guardian and ward. During the existence of guardianship, the and ward cannot deal relative situation of the parties imposes a general in-with each other during ability to deal with each other. But courts of equity the continuproceed yet further in cases of this sort. They will relation. not permit transactions between guardians and wards soon after the to stand, even when they have occurred after the termination of minority has ceased, and the relation becomes thereby viewed with actually ended, if the intermediate period be short (v), suspicion. unless the circumstances demonstrate the fullest deliberation on the part of the ward, and the most abundant good faith on the part of the guardian (w).

Where, however, the influence as well as the legal Gift upheld

⁽s) Wright v. Vanderplank, 2 K. & J. 1; 8 De G. M. & G. 133; Baker v. Bradley, 7 De G. M. & G. 597; Kempson v. Ashbee, L. R. 10 Ch. App. 15.

⁽t) Savery v. King, 5 H. L. Cas. 627; Davies v. Davies, 4 Giff. 417; Hannah v. Hodyson, 30 Beav. 19.

⁽u) Mason v. Seney, 11 Grant, U. C. Chanc. 447.

⁽w) Pierce v. Waring, I P. Wms. 121. (w) Hatch v. Hatch, 9 Ves. 297; Wright v. Vanderplank, 2 K. & J. 1; 8 De G. M. & G. 133.

when influence and legal authority have ceased.

authority of the guardian over the ward has completely ceased, and the ward has been put in possession of his property after a full and fair settlement of accounts, equity will not interfere to set aside a reasonable gift to the guardian (x).

(3.) Quasi guardians. Medical advisers. Ministers of religion.

The same principles are applied to persons standing in the situation of quasi guardians, or confidential advisers, as medical advisers (y), or ministers of religion (z), and to every case where influence is acquired and abused, where confidence is reposed and betrayed (a).

(4.) Solicitor and client.

In the next place, as to the relation between solicitor and client. In Tomson v. Judge (b), A., who was proved to have entertained feelings of peculiar personal regard for B, his solicitor, conveyed to him certain real estate by a deed purporting to be a purchase-deed; the consideration was expressed to be £ 100, the value of the real estate being upwards of £, 1200. B. produced evidence to show that no money passed; that the transaction was never intended to be a purchase, but a gift for his services, and from affection. It was held that the rule is absolute, that a solicitor cannot sustain a GIFT from his client, made pending the relation of solicitor and client, and the deed was set aside. Kindersley, V.-C., said :-- "Now, as to the cases of Purchases by solicitors from their clients. fect bona fides, there is no rule of this court to the effect that a solicitor cannot make such a purchase. A solicitor can purchase his client's property even while the relation subsists; but the rule of the court is that

A gift from client to solicitor pending that relation cannot stand. A purchase from client, if there is peris good.

⁽x) Hylton v. Hylton, 2 Ves. Sr. 549; Hatch v. Hatch, 9 Ves. 297. (y) Dent v. Bennett, 4 My. & Cr. 269.

⁽z) Nottidge v. Prince, 2 Giff. 246.

⁽a) Smith v. Kay, 7 H. L. Cas. 751; Lyon v. Home, L. R. 6 Eq. 655. (b) 3 Drew. 306. See also Morgan v. Minett, L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 638; Clarke v. Girdwood, 7 Ch. Div. 9.

such purchases are to be viewed with great jealousy, and the onus lies on the solicitor to show that the transaction was perfectly fair, that the client knew what he was doing, and in particular that a fair price was given, and of course that no kind of advantage was taken by the solicitor. If the solicitor shows that the transaction was fair and clear, there is no difference between a purchase by him and a stranger. Is the rule with regard to gifts precisely the same, or is it more stringent? Less stringent it cannot be. There is this obvious distinction between a gift and a purchase. In the case of a purchase, the parties are at arm's length, and each party requires from the other the full value of that which he gives in return. In the case of a gift the matter is totally different, and it appears to me that there is a far stricter rule established in this court with regard to GIFTS than with regard to purchases; and that the rule of this court makes such transactions, that is, of a gift from a client to the solicitor, absolutely void "(c).

It is an established rule, therefore, that a solicitor solicitor must shall not in any way whatever, in respect of any trans- make no more advantage actions in the relations between him and his client, than his fair professional make any gain to himself at the expense of his client, remuneration. beyond the amount of his just and fair professional remuneration (d).

An agreement between a solicitor and client, that a Agreement to gross sum shall be paid for costs for business already pay a gross sum for past done, is valid. But in this case it behoves the solicitor business is valid. to use great caution, and to preserve sufficient evidence that it was a fair transaction, and that his client was

4 Giff. 221; M'Cann v. Dempsey, 1 Gr. 192.

⁽c) Holman v. Loynes, 18 Jur. 843; Welles v. Middleton, I Cox, 112; Hatch v. Hatch, 9 Ves. 292; Spencer v. Topham, 22 Beav. 573; Gresley v. Mousely, 4 De G. & Jo. 78; Lewis v. Hillman, 3 H. L. Cas. 630.

(d) Tyrrell v. Bank of London, 10 H. L. Cas. 26; O'Brien v. Lewis,

not under the influence of the pressure arising from

the relation of solicitor and client (e),—a pressure characterised by Lord Thurlow (f) as "the crushing influences of the power of an attorney who has the And for future affairs of a man in his hand." An agreement by a solicitor to receive a fixed sum for costs for future business was formerly invalid, and would have been set aside even after payment under the agreement (g); but under 33 and 34 Vict., c. 28, s. 4, a solicitor may contract with his client as to his remuneration for future services, but every such contract is subject to taxation as a bill of costs, and may (if improper) be

business under 33 & 34 Vict., c. 28.

(5.) Trustee and cestui que trust. Trustee must not place himself in a position inconsistent with the interests of the trust. Purchase by trustee from cestui que trust cannot be upheld.

set aside.

In the next place, with regard to the relation of trustee and cestui que trust, it may be laid down as a general rule, that a trustee is bound not to do anything which can place him in a position inconsistent with the interests of the trust, or which has a tendency to interfere with his duty in discharging it. It is a consequence of this rule, that a purchase by a trustee from his cestui que trust, even although he may have given an adequate price and gained no advantage, shall be set aside at the option of the cestui que trust; and, as observed by Lord Eldon (h), "it is founded upon this, that though you may see in a particular case that the trustee has not made advantage, it is utterly impossible to examine, upon satisfactory evidence in the power of the court (by which I mean in the power of the parties), in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred. whether he has made advantage or not. Suppose a trustee buys an estate, and by the knowledge acquired in that character discovers a valuable coal-mine under it, and, locking that up in his own breast, enters into

⁽e) Morgan v. Higgins, I Giff. 277. (f) Welles v. Middleton, I Cox. 125.

⁽g) In re Newman, 30 Beav. 196. (h) Ex parte Lacey, 6 Ves. 627.

a contract with the cestui que trust; if he chooses to deny it, how can the court try that against that denial? The probability is, that a trustee who has once conceived such a purpose will never disclose it, and the cestui que trust will be effectually defrauded" (i).

It has been decided, however, that "a trustee may Except on a buy from the cestui que trust, provided there is a clear tinct and distinct and fair and distinct contract, ascertained to be such after a contract, that the cestui que jealous and scrupulous examination of all the circum- trust intended stances, that the cestui que trust intended the trustee to purchase. should buy; and there is no fraud, no concealment, no advantage taken by the trustee of information acquired by him in the character of trustee "(j). And, in fact, the rule as expressed by Lord Eldon in the words quoted above, would at the present day hold good (if at all) in the case only of a trustee for sale purchasing from his cestui que trust without the leave of the court to bid.

But although it is a general rule that a trustee can- Trustee may not except in exceptional cases purchase from himself, purchase from as it has been said, there is no objection to his purchas
trust who is sui juris, and ing from his cestui que trust, who is sui juris, and who has discharged has discharged him from the obligation which attached upon him as a trustee; but even such a transaction will be watched by the court "with infinite jealousy" (k).

A trustee is never permitted to partake of the Gift to trustee bounty of his cestui que trust, except under circumstances which would make the same valid, if it were a between guarcase of guardianship. The relation must have in fact dian and ward. ceased, and it must be proved that the influence arising from that relation has also ceased.

⁽i) Hamilton v. Wright, 9 C. & F. 111, 123-5; Ingle v. Richards, 28 Beav. 361; Randall v. Errington, 10 Ves. 423; Campbell v. Walker, 5 Ves. 682; 13 Ves. 601.
(j) Coles v. Trecothick, 9 Ves. 234; Denton v. Donner, 23 Beav. 285.
(k) Ex parte Lacey, 6 Ves. 626; Fox v. Mackreth, 1 L. C. 123.

(6.) Principal and agent.

Entire good faith and complete discloin dealings cipal and agent.

Agent cannot make any secret profit out of his agency.

In the next place, as to the relation of principal and agent, the same principles are generally applicable. Agents are not permitted to become secret vendors or purchasers of property which they are authorised to buy or sell for their principals (1), or indeed to deal validly with their principals in any case, except where sure necessary there is the most entire good faith, and full disclosure of between prin- all facts and circumstances, and an absence of all undue influence, advantage, or imposition (m). And if an agent employed to make a purchase, purchase for himself, he will be held a trustee for his principal (n). Nor will an agent employed to purchase be permitted, unless by the plain and express consent of his principal, to make any profit out of the transaction (o).

(7.) Miscellaneous fiduciary persons. Counsel, auctioneers, &c.

And the principles which apply to trustees, agents, and others, apply with almost equal force to other persons standing in confidential or fiduciary situations, as to counsel, agents, assignees and solicitors of a bankrupt's estate, auctioneers, and creditors who have been consulted as to the sale (p).

Debtor, creditor, and sureties.

Entire good faith is required between debtor and creditor and sureties. And if a creditor does any act affecting the surety; or if he omits to do any act which he is required to do by the surety, and is bound to do, and that act or omission proves injurious to the surety; or if the creditor enters into any stipulations

(m) St. 315; Dally v. Wonham, 33 Beav. 154; De Bussche v. Alt, 8 Ch. Div. 286.

(p) Pooley v. Quilter, 2 De G. & Jo. 327; Carter v. Palmer, 8 C. & Fin. 657; Ex parte Holyman, 8 Jur. 156; Kerr v. Bain, 11 Gr. 423; M'Pherson v. Watt, L. R. 3 App. 254.

⁽l) Lowther v. Lowther, 13 Ves. 103; Charter v. Trevelyan, 11 C. & F. 714; Walsham v. Stainton, 1 De G. J. & S. 678.

⁽n) Lees v. Nuttall, I Russ. & My. 53; Taylor v. Salmon, 4 My. & Cr.

⁽o) East India Co. v. Henchman, I Ves. Jr. 289; Bentley v. Craven, 18 Beav. 75; Tyrrell v. Bank of London, 10 H. L. Cas. 26; Beck v. Kantorowicz, 3 K. & J. 230; The Imperial Mercantile Credit Association v. Coleman, L. R. 6 H. L. 189.

with the debtor unknown to the surety, and inconsistent with the terms of the original contract, the surety may set up such act, omission, or contract, as a defence to any suit brought against him in law or equity (q).

III. Constructive frauds which unconscientiously III. Construccompromit or injuriously affect or operate substantially being unconas frauds upon the private rights, interests, or duties scientious or injurious to of the parties themselves, or of third persons.

the rights of third parties.

To this class may be referred many of those cases (1.) If contract arising under the Statute of Frauds, which requires writing certain contracts to be in writing to give them validity. through fraud of a party, he In the construction of that statute, a general principle cannot set up Statute of has been adopted, that as it is designed as a protection Frauds as a against fraud, it shall never be allowed to be set up defence. as a protection and support of fraud. Hence, in a variety of cases, where, from fraud, a contract of this sort has not been reduced into writing, but has been suffered to rest in confidence or in parol communications between the parties, courts of equity will enforce it against the party guilty of a breach of confidence, who attempts to shelter himself behind the provisions of the statute (r).

Common sailors being so extremely generous, im- (2.) Common provident, and credulous, and therefore liable to be sailors,—contracts by. imposed upon, equity views their contracts respecting wages and prize-money with great jealousy; and generally grants them relief, whenever any inequality appears in the bargain, or an undue advantage has been taken (s).

⁽q) Sm. Man. 84. (r) Montacute v. Maxwell, I P. Wms. 619; Att.-Gen. v. Sitwell 1,

You. & Coll. Exch. Ca. 583; Hussey v. Horne Payne, 4 App. Ca. 311. (s) Dow v. Wheldon, 2 Ves. Sr. 516.

(3.) Bargains Bargains with nears, reversioners, with heirs and during the life of their parents or ancestors, will be expectants. relieved against, unless the purchaser can show that a fair price was paid; for fraud in this class of cases is usually though not always presumed from inadequacy of price (t). And this rule is founded on good sense. The very fact of the expectant coming into the market to sell his expectancy, shows that he is not in a position to make his own terms, and that he is more or less in the power of the purchaser; in all such cases, therefore, actual distress need not be proved; a court of equity presumes that there is distress, and that is equivalent to saying, that the party has not that full power of deliberate consent which is essential to a valid contract. The onus, therefore, lies upon the person dealing with the reversioner or expectant, to show that the transaction is reasonable and bonâ fide.

Jurisdiction under 32 & 33 Vict., c. 4.

The jurisdiction of courts of equity in these cases is not affected by the 32 and 33 Vict., c. 4, which enacts that no purchase, made bonâ fide, of a reversionary interest, shall be set aside merely on the ground of under value (u).

Knowledge of person standing in loco parentis does not per se make such transactions valid.

It would seem that the fact that the father or other person standing in loco parentis was aware of or took part in the transaction does not necessarily make that valid which would otherwise be void. It will at the most raise a presumption in favour of the bonâ fides of the parties. If, therefore, a father, being unable to supply his son's necessities, assists and protects him in raising money from strangers, the son, in such a case, having in his father's advice presumptively the

⁽t) Peacock v. Evans, 16 Ves. 512; Hincksman v. Smith, 3 Russ. 433; Aylesford v. Morris, L. R. 8 Ch. 484; In re Slater's Trusts, 11 Ch. Div. 227.

⁽u) Miller v. Cook, L. R. 10 Eq. 641; Tyler v. Yates, L. R. 11 Eq. 265; L. R. 6 Ch. 665.

best security for obtaining the fair market value of what he sells, the court may perhaps infer that a bargain made under such circumstances was fair and for full value (v).

It is upon similar principles that post obit bonds, (4.) Post obits. and other securities of a like nature, are set aside when made by heirs and expectants. A post obit bond is an agreement, on the receipt of ready money by the obligor, to pay a sum exceeding the sum so received, and the ordinary interest thereof, on the death of the person from whom he, the obligor, expects to become entitled to some property. If in other respects these contracts are perfectly fair, courts of equity will permit them to have effect as securities for the sum to which ex æquo et bono the lender is entitled; for he who seeks equity must do equity.

Where tradesmen and others have sold goods to (5.) Tradesmen young and expectant heirs at extravagant prices, at extravagant and under circumstances demonstrating imposition, or prices. undue advantage, or an intention to connive at secret extravagance, courts of equity have reduced the securities, and cut down the claims to their reasonable and just amount.

In all these cases where, after the pressure of neces- The party insity has been removed, the party freely and deliberately, acquiesce after and upon full information, confirms the precedent con- the pressure of necessity has tract, or other transaction, courts of equity will gene-ceased. rally hold him bound thereby; for if a man is fully informed, and acts with his eyes open, he may, by a new agreement, bar himself from relief.

Another class of constructive frauds consists of those (6.) Knowingly cases where a man designedly or knowingly produces false impres-

⁽v) King v. Hamlet, 2 My. & K. 456; Talbot v. Staniforth, I J. & H. 502; King v. Savery, I Sm. & G. 271; 5 H. L. Cas. 627.

a third party.

One who enables another to commit a fraud is answerable. A man who has a title to property standing by and letting another purchase or deal with it, is bound.

sion to mislead a false impression on another, who is thereby drawn into some act or contract injurious to his own rights There can be no real difference in effect or interests. between an express representation and one that is naturally or necessarily implied from the circumstances. The wholesome maxim of the law is, that the party who enables another to commit a fraud is answerable for the consequences (w); and the maxim, Fraus est celare fraudem is, with proper limitations in its application, a maxim of general justice (x). Thus, if a man having a title to an estate which is offered for sale, and knowing his title, stands by and encourages the sale, or does not forbid it, and thereby another person is induced to purchase the estate, the former so standing by, will be bound by the sale (y). On the occasion of a loan upon the security of a lease, which the borrower represented himself as entitled to have granted to him for ninety-nine years, the lender required a written intimation from the alleged lessor of his intention to The lessor, being apprised of the grant the lease. requisition and its object, signed the required intimation. The loan was made upon the faith of it, and afterwards the lessor granted a lease, which was then mortgaged by the borrower to the lender. It turned out that the lessor had, some time before, demised the same premises for the same term to the borrower, by whom it had since been assigned for value. It was held that the court had jurisdiction to direct repayment by the lessor to the lender of the sum which he had advanced, with interest, although the lessor was not shown to have been guilty of any conscious active only forgetful- fraud, or of having done more than forgotten the previous lease when he made the misrepresentation and granted

Even though there be no fraud, but ness.

(w) Rice v. Rice, 2 Drew. 73.

⁽x) Rodgers v. Rodgers, 13 Gr. 143. (y) Teasdale v. Teasdale, Sel. Ch. Cas. 59; Cawdor v. Lewis, 1 You. & Coll. Ex. Ca. 427.

the second lease (z). In this case the borrower was, of course, guilty of an actual fraud; but the alternative and more direct remedy against him was probably worthless.

Agreements whereby parties engage not to bid (7.) Agreeagainst each other at a public auction, especially where auctions not to the same is directed or required by law, are held void, another. for they are unconscientious, and have a tendency to cause the property to be sold at an undervalue. On Puffer at sale the other hand, if underbidders or puffers are employed by auction. at an auction to enhance the price, and to deceive other bidders, and they are in fact misled, the sale will be held void as against public policy (a). But now by 30 and 31 Vict., c. 48, s. 6, the vendor, if he re- Under 30 & 31 serves to himself the right in the particulars or con-Vict., c. 48. ditions of sale, may bid in person or by one agent at the sale (b).

If a creditor who is party to a composition deed (8.) Fraud has obtained a secret and undue advantage as a con- ing creditors dition of signing the deed, and has thus decoyed other to a composiinnocent and unsuspecting creditors into signing the deed of composition, which they supposed to be founded upon the basis of entire equality and reciprocity among all the creditors, it is a fraud upon the policy of the law. And such secret arrangements are utterly void, even as against the assenting debtor or his sureties, and money paid under them is recoverable back (c).

In every transaction where a person obtains by (9.) A person donation a benefit from another to the prejudice of donation must that other person, and to his own advantage, if the always be pre-

⁽z) Slim v. Croucher, 1 De G. F. & Jo. 518.

⁽a) Sugd. V. & P. 9. (b) Gilliat v. Gilliat, L. R. 9 Eq. 60. (c) Mare Sandford, 1 Giff. 288.

pared to prove transaction should afterwards be questioned, he should bona fides. be able to prove that the donor voluntarily and deliberately performed the act, knowing its nature and effect (d). But the cases have not gone so far as to show that the donee, under a voluntary settlement, where no power of revocation is reserved, has thrown upon him in the first instance the onus of showing that the settlement was intended by the donor to be

(10.) A power must be exercised bond designed. Secret agreement in fraud of object of power.

irrevocable (e).

"No point is better established, than that a person having a power of appointment must exercise it bonâ fide for the end fide for the end designed, otherwise it is corrupt and void" (f). Hence when a parent, having a power of appointment among his children, appoints to one or more of them, to the exclusion of the others, upon α bargain for his own advantage, equity will relieve against the appointment on the ground of fraud, as where there is a secret understanding that the child should assign a part of the fund to a stranger (q), or to the father's debtors (h). So again if a parent, havby a lattner to a sickly infant, ing a power to raise portions for children, and even to fix the time when they are to be raised, appoints to a child during infancy, and while not in want of a portion, especially if the death of the child at the time of the appointment is expected, he will not be allowed. on the child's death, to derive any benefit from the appointment as the personal representative of that child (i).

Appointment by a father to

⁽d) Cooke v. Lamotte, 15 Beav. 240; Anderson v. Elsworth, 3 Giff.

⁽e) Coutts v. Acworth, L. R. 8 Eq. 558; Wollaston v. Tribe, L. R. 9 Eq. 44, explained in Hall v. Hall, L. R. 8 Ch. App. 430. (f) Aleyn v. Belchier, I L. C. 415.

⁽f) Aleyn v. Betchter, 1 B. C. 415.
(g) Daubeny v. Cockburn, I Mer. 626.
(k) Farmer v. Martin, 2 Sim. 502; Carver v. Richards, I De G. F. & Jo. 548; Salmon v. Gibbs, 3 De G. & Sm. 343.
(i) Hinchinbroke v. Seymour, I Bro. C. C. 394; Wellesley v. Mornington, 2 K. & J. 143; Roach v. Trood, L. R. 3 Ch. Div. 429.

Formerly, where a person having a power of appoint- Doctrine of ing property among the members of a class, although illusory appointments. with full discretion as to the amount of their respective shares, exercised that power by appointing to one or more of the objects a merely nominal share, such an appointment, although valid at law, was set aside as an illusory appointment, not being exercised bonâ fide for the end designed by the donor (j). In consequence of the great difficulty and conflict of authority, as to what might be deemed a nominal or illusory share, the legislature interfered in the year 1830, and established in effect that no appointment shall be invalid on the Abolished by ground merely that an unsubstantial, nominal, or Will. IV., illusory share of the property has been appointed to the objects of the power (k). As a consequence of this Act, the appointor might have cut off any appointee "with a shilling," as the phrase went; and now under the Powers Amendment Act, 1874 (1), the appointor need not now appoint any share at all to any particular appointee, but may cut him off even without the shilling.

"A man who has induced another to enter into a (II.) A man contract with him by representing an actual state of representing a things as a security for the enjoyment of an interest of facts as inducement to which he has himself created for valuable considera- a contract, tion, is not at liberty by his own act to derogate from gate from it that interest by determinating the state of things which act. he so held forth as the consideration or inducement for entering into the contract" (m).

⁽j) Wilson v. Piggott, 2 Ves. Jr. 351.

⁽k) I Will. c. 46; I Sugd. on Pow. 545. (l) 37 & 38 Vict. c. 37. See In re Capon's Trusts, W. N. 1879, p. 25. (m) Piggott v. Stratton, Johnson, 341; I De G. F. & J. 33.

CHAPTER V.

SURETYSHIP.

Suretyship.

CASES in which the peculiar remedies afforded by courts of equity constitute the principal ground of jurisdiction, constitute the second great branch of the concurrent jurisdiction as above subdivided, and thereunder fall to be considered the various matters following in this part of the work, and firstly, the matter of suretyship.

Utmost good faith required between all parties. The contract of suretyship requires the utmost good faith between all the parties to it; for they do not deal with one another at arm's length as in ordinary contracts. Any concealment of material facts, or any express or implied misrepresentation of such facts, or any undue advantage taken of the surety by the creditor, either by surprise, or by withholding proper information, will undoubtedly furnish a sufficient ground to invalidate the contract (a).

What concealment of facts by creditor releases surety? The general principle.

It is a question even now not quite settled (or at least not generally or readily understood) as to what concealment of facts—what degree of suppressio veri—by the creditor is necessary to annul the obligation of the contract of suretyship. Story lays down broadly that "if a party taking a guarantee from a surety conceals from him facts which go to increase his risk, and suffers him to enter into the contract under false impressions as to the real state of facts, such conceal-

⁽a) Davies v. London and Provincial Marine Insurance, 8 Ch. Div. 469.

ment will amount to fraud;" and this broad assertion of the rule is no doubt supported by the decided cases, although they or some of them seem very much to narrow the foundation of the doctrine, and to point to the conclusion, that the mere concealment of facts affecting the surety is not in itself a ground for rescinding the contract, unless either the party concealing them was under some obligation to disclose them, (1,) Either or the concealed facts themselves go directly and the fact must have been one proximately to vary the liability of the surety. Thus, which the in the case of *Hamilton* v. *Watson* (b), it appeared that under an ob-A. became indebted to the B. Company in the sum of discover. £750; that the B. Company amalgamated with the Hamilton v. Watson. G. Company, and the latter Company took on itself the rights and liabilities of the former. On the G. Company calling on A. for payment of the debt due from him, A. entered into a bond, with H. as a surety, by which a new cash account should be opened with the G. Company to the amount of £750, \overline{H} , not being informed of the previous debt. A week after the date of the bond, A. drew out a draft upon the new account with the G. Company for the whole £750 for which H. had become bound, and paid off with it the old debt due to the B. Company. It was held that this was not a sufficient concealment of facts to discharge the surety—that the mere circumstance of the parties supposing that the money was intended to be applied to a particular purpose did not appear to vitiate the transaction at all—that the creditor was under no obligation to volunteer a disclosure of any transaction that passed between him and the other party—that if the surety would guard against particular perils, he must put the question and gain the information required—and that the true criterion as to whether any disclosure ought to be made voluntarily, was to inquire whether there was anything that might not

naturally be expected to take place between the parties -that is, whether there was a contract between the debtor and creditor to the effect that his position should be different from that which the surety might naturally expect.

Rule as to concealment in insurances inapplicable to common suretyships.]

It is to be observed of the last-mentioned case that the amount of the surety's liabilities was not in any way affected by the concealed fact; had it been otherwise, there would probably have arisen an obligation to disclose it. But when the amount of liability is not affected, it has been decided that the rule which governs insurances on ships and on lives as to the concealment of facts does not apply to common suretyships and guaranties—that, in insurances on ships or lives, the rule, that if the assured conceal any material facts known to him, even though without fraud, the policy is vitiated, is peculiar to the nature of such contracts, in which, in general, the assured knows, and the underwriter does not know, the circumstances of the voyage or the state of health (c).

Or (2.) the material fact concealed must have been an integral part of the immediate transaction.

But although the law is so far liberal in its rule as to what facts a creditor is bound to disclose, there are cases where it has been held that a concealment of a material fact, part of the immediate transaction, discharges the surety. Thus, in Pidcock v. Bishop (d), it was agreed between the vendors and the vendee of goods that the latter should pay IOS. per ton beyond the market price in liquidation of an old debt due to one of the vendors. The payment of the goods was guaranteed by a third party in the following words:-"I will guaranty you in the payment of £200 value, to be delivered to Tickell, in Lightmoor pig-iron." The private bargain between the parties was not com-

⁽c) North British Insurance Co. v. Lloyd, 10 Exch. 523; Wythes v. Labouchere, 3 De G. & Jo. 593. (d) 3 B. & C. 605.

municated to the surety. It was held that this was a fraud on the surety—that a party giving a guarantee ought to be informed of any private bargain between the vendor and the vendee which might have the effect of varying his responsibility—that the effect of the transaction would be to compel the vendor to appropriate to the payment of the old debt a portion of those funds which the surety might reasonably suppose would go towards defraying the debt for the payment of which he had made himself collaterally liable, and that such a bargain therefore increased his responsibilities (e).

It seems to follow that, as a general rule, a creditor Creditor not is not bound to inquire into the circumstances under duire as to which a third party becomes to him surety for a debt, circumstances of suretyship, but that in exceptional circumstances, he will be bound if there is no to inquire, as, for example, where the dealings between pect fraud on the parties are such as would reasonably create a surety; secus, if reasonable, suspicion that a fraud is being practised upon the ground of surety. Thus, in Owen v. Homan (f), A. being largely indebted to B. & Company, and being on the verge of bankruptcy, brought them, on different occasions, bills, &c., signed by himself and his aunt, as surety. aunt was, to the knowledge of B. & Company, a married woman, aged 75, and living apart from her husband. It was held that the circumstances were such as reasonably to create in the minds of the bankers a suspicion of fraud on the part of the debtor towards his aunt; that they could not shelter themselves under the plea that they were not called on to ask and did not ask any questions on the subject, for that, in such cases, wilful ignorance is not to be distinguished in its equitable consequences from knowledge (q).

⁽e) Maltby's Case, cited I Dow. 294. (f) 4 H. L. Cas. 997.

⁽g) Maitland v. Irving, 15 Sim. 437.

Rights of creditor against surety regulated by the instrument of guaranty.

The rights of the creditor as against the principal debtor may or may not depend upon the instrument of guaranty; but the rights of the creditor as against the surety are wholly regulated by the terms of that instrument. When an obligation exists only in virtue of a covenant, its extent can be measured only by the words in which the covenant is expressed (h). cases, therefore, where a surety is bound by a jointbond, the court will not reform the joint-bond so as to make it several, upon the presumption of a mistake from the nature of the transaction; but it will require positive proof of an express agreement by the surety that it should be several as well as joint (i).

Surety cannot compel creditor to proceed against debtor.

It would seem, that a surety cannot compel the creditor to proceed against the debtor, and practically there is no hardship in the case; (j) for at any moment after the debt becomes payable, the surety may himself pay off the creditor, and proceed against the debtor for the money so paid (k).

Remedies available for surety. timet to compel payment by debtor.

But on the other hand, a surety has a right to come into equity, to take proceedings in the nature of quia timet, to compel the debtor to pay the debt when due, whether the surety has actually been sued on it or not; for it is "unreasonable that a man should always have a cloud hanging over him" (1). But this right only arises where the creditor has a present right to sue his debtor, and refuses to exercise that right (m).

(2.) Judicial declaration that surety discharged.

Similarly a surety may file a bill for a declaration that his liability is at an end, where the course of

⁽h) Summer v. Powell, 2 Mer. 35, 36.
(i) Rawstone v. Parr, 3 Russ. 424 & 539.
(j) But see Newton v. Charlton, 10 Hare, 646.

⁽k) Wright v. Simpson, 6 Ves. 733.

⁽l) Ranelaugh v. Hayes, 1 Vern. 189; Mitford on Plead. 172; Antrobus v. Davidson, 3 Mer. 569; Wooldridge v. Norris, L. R. 6 Eq. 410. (m) Padwick v. Stanley, 9 Hare, 627.

dealing between principal debtor and creditor has operated as a release (n).

Where the surety pays the debt on behalf of the (3.) Action for principal debtor, the rule, whether at law (0) or in reimburse-equity, is that he has a right to call upon such debtor debtor. for reimbursement. And this right has been put upon the ground of an implied contract on the part of the debtor to repay the money so paid on his account, where there is no express promise creating the right (p).

If, in addition to the security given by the surety, (4.) Action for the creditor has taken some additional or collateral securities by securities from the principal debtor, courts of equity creditor to surety on payhave held that upon payment of the debt by the surety ing the debt. to the creditor, the surety is entitled to have the benefit, not only of the principal security, but also of all those collateral securities thus given by the debtor to the creditor. Thus, for example, if at the time when the bond of the principal and surety is given, a mortgage is also made by the principal to the creditor as an additional security for the debt, then, if the surety pays the debt, he will be entitled to have an assignment of the mortgage, and to stand in the place of the mortgagee (q). But this general rule did not apply to such securities as got back upon payment to the principal debtor, and were, in fact, extinguished by the payment. Such was the case of a bond entered into by the principal debtor and surety to the creditor: on payment by the surety, the obligation on the bond ceased to exist, and consequently the surety could not stand in the shoes of the creditor as to that bond (r). But by the Mercantile Law Extension of

⁽n) Wilson v. Lloyd, 21 W. R. 507.
(o) Toussaint v. Martinnant, 2 T. R. 105.
(p) Craythorne v. Swinburne, 14 Ves. 162.

⁽¹⁾ St. 499; Hodgson v. Shaw, 3 My. & Keen, 190. (r) Copis v. Middleton, 1 T. & R. 229; Hodgson v. Shaw, 3 My. & K. 190.

right under 19 & 20 Vict., c. 97, s. 5. Amendment Act (s), this exception has been abolished, and a surety is now entitled to have assigned to him every judgment, speciality, or security which shall be held by the creditor in respect of such debt, whether such judgment, &c., shall or shall not at law be deemed to have been satisfied by the payment of the debt. But, nota bene, this right to the delivery up of collateral securities held by the creditor does not extend to a surety who is such merely because of having endorsed a Bill of Exchange (t).

(5.) Action against cosureties for contribution.

Where a debt is secured by the suretyship of two or more persons, and one surety pays the whole or part of the debt, he has in equity, and to a certain extent also at law, a right to contribution from his co-surety; and this doctrine of "contribution is bottomed and fixed on general principles of justice, and does not spring from contract, though contract may qualify it" (u). Hence it follows that the doctrine of contribution applies whether the parties are bound in the same or in different instruments, provided they are co-sureties for the same principal and in the same engagement, even though they are ignorant of the mutual relation of suretyship; and further, there is no difference if they are bound in different sums, except that the contribution could not be required beyond the sum for which they are respectively bound (v).

Differences between law and equity, as regards suretyship, now abolished: (I.) Extent of remedy over

In certain respects, the jurisdiction at common law used to be less beneficial than the jurisdiction in equity. Thus, where there were several sureties, and one became insolvent, the surety who paid the entire debt could in equity compel the solvent sureties to contri-

(s) 19 & 20 Vict. c. 97, s. 5.

⁽t) Duncan Fox & Co. v. North and South Wales Bank, 11 Ch. Div. 88.
(u) Dering v. Winchelsea, 1 L. C. 106; Coope v. Twynam, 1 T. & R.
26.

⁽v) Dering v. Winchelsca, 1 L. C. 106; Whiting v. Burke, L. R. 6 Ch. 342.

bute towards payment of the entire debt (w); but at for contribulaw he could recover only an aliquot part of the whole, tion. regard being had to the original number of co-sureties (x). Suppose, for instance, there were three sureties, and one of them became insolvent, if one of the remaining solvent sureties paid the debt, he might in equity compel the other solvent surety to contribute a moiety; at law he could only recover one-third in any case from the solvent co-surety. But that distinction and all other distinctions between law and equity have now been abolished, and the rules of equity are made to prevail (y). It seems, however, that if one of the sureties died, contribution could, and it certainly now can, be enforced against his representatives, both at law and in equity (z).

Before equitable pleas were allowed at common law, (2.) Admission if it did not appear on the face of the instrument of parolevidence to show that a person was a surety, but if, on the contrary, it that apparent appeared on the face of the bond that the principal surety only. debtor and the surety were bound jointly and severally or as primary debtors, parol evidence was inadmissible at law to show that the surety was only a surety (a); but in equity parol evidence was always admissible for that purpose (b). Such evidence was rendered admissible at law under an equitable defence under the C. L. P. Act, 1854 (c), and of course there is now no distinction in that respect between law and equity.

Although the doctrine of contribution is founded General prin-

⁽w) Hitchman v. Stewart, 3 Drew. 271; Mayor of Berwick v. Murray, 7 De G. M. & G. 497.

⁽x) Cowell v. Edwards, 2 B. & P. 268; Batard v. Haues, 2 Ell. & B.

⁽y) Judicature Act, 1873, s. 25, sub-sect. 11.

⁽z) Primrose v. Bromley, I Atk. 88; Batard v. Hawes, 2 Ell. & B. 287.

⁽a) Lewis v. Jones, 4 B. & C. 506.

⁽b) Craythorne v. Swinburne, 14 Ves. 160, 170; Clarke v. Henty, 3 Y. & C. Ex. Ca. 187.

⁽c) Pooley v. Harradine, 7 Ell. & B. 431; Taylor v. Burgess, 5 H. & N. I.

ciples regarding sureties :-(I.) Surety may limit his liability by express contract.

upon the general equity of the case, and not upon contract, still a person may by express contract take himself either wholly or partially out of the operation of that doctrine. Thus, where three persons became sureties, and agreed among themselves that if the principal debtor failed to pay the debt, they should pay only their respective aliquot parts; and afterwards one of them became insolvent, and one of the remaining solvent sureties paid the whole debt, it was held that he was entitled to recover only one-third from the other solvent surety (d).

(2.) Surety can only charge debtor for what he actually paid.

Where a surety discharges an obligation at a less sum than its full amount, he cannot, as against his principal, make himself a creditor for the whole amount, but can only claim what he has actually paid in discharge of the debt (e).

Circumstances discharging the surety. with debtor without surety's privity.

A surety will be discharged from his liability, where by acts subsequent to the contract for suretyship his (1.) If creditor position has been essentially changed without his convaries contract Thus, where a person gave a promissory-note as a surety, upon an agreement that the amount should be advanced to the principal debtor, by draft at three months' date, and the creditor, without the concurrence of the surety, paid the amount at once; it was held that the agreement had been varied, and the surety was therefore discharged (f). But if the variation of liability is in reality in relief pro tanto of the surety, e.g., part payment by the principal debtor being accepted by the principal creditor in discharge of the whole liability, the surety is not discharged (q).

⁽d) Swain v. Wall, I Ch. R. 149; Craythorne v. Swinburne, 14 Ves.

^{165;} Coope v. Twynam, 1 T. & R. 426.

(e) Reed v. Norris, 2 My. & Cr. 361, 375.

(f) Bonser v. Cox, 6 Beav. 110; Calvert v. Lond. Dock Co., 2 Keen, 638; Evans v. Bremridge, 2 K. & J. 174; 8 De G. M. & G. 101; Holme v. Brunskill, 3 Q. B. Div. 495.

⁽q) Webster v. Petre, 4 Exch. Div. 127.

"If a creditor, without the consent of the surety, (2.) If creditor gives time to the principal debtor, by so doing he dis- a binding mancharges the surety; that is, if time is given by virtue ner to debtor without conof positive contract between the creditor and the prin-sent of surety, cipal debtor, not where the creditor is merely inactive. and thereby And the surety is held to be discharged for this reason, remedies of the surety. because the creditor by giving time to the principal has for the time at least put it out of the power of the surety to consider whether he (the surety) will have recourse to his remedy against the principal debtor or not, and because he, the surety, cannot in fact have the same remedy against the principal as he would have had under the original contract" (h). It seems, however, that a surety will not be discharged by the creditor's giving time to the debtor, if the creditor's remedies against the surety are not thereby diminished Secus, if or affected, but are accelerated, because in such a case, remedies of surety not the surety's remedies against the principal debtor re-thereby affected. main also unaffected (i).

Nor will the surety be discharged if the creditor, Or, if creditor on giving further time to the principal debtor, reserve giving time reserves his his right to proceed against the surety; "for when the rights against surety." right is reserved, the principal debtor cannot say it is inconsistent with giving him time that the creditor should be at liberty to proceed against the sureties, and that they should turn round upon the principal debtor. notwithstanding the time so given him; for he was a party to the agreement by which that right was reserved to the creditor, and the question whether or not the surety is informed of the arrangement is wholly immaterial" (i).

⁽h) Samuell v. Howorth, 3 Mer. 272; Wright v. Simpson, 6 Ves. 734; Rees v. Berrington, 2 L. C. 992; Bailey v. Edwards, 4 B. & S. 711; 12 W. R. 337; Davies v. Stainbank, 6 De G. M. & G. 679.
(i) Hulme v. Coles, 2 Sim. 12; Prendergast v. Devey, 6 Mad. 124; Price v. Edmunds, 10 B. & C. 578.
(j) Webb v. Hewitt, 3 K. & J. 442; Boultbee v. Stubbs, 18 Ves. 26; Wyke v. Rogers, 1 De G. M. & G. 408.

(3.) If the creditor releases the principal debtor.

And the rule is the same when the principal debtor purports to be released, but the creditor reserves his rights against the surety. But where the purported release is in general terms, the surety will be discharged, and that not from any equity in his favour, but on principles of bare justice to the principal debtor. For "it would be a fraud on the principal debtor to profess to release him, and then to sue the surety, who in his turn would sue him; but where the bargain is that the creditor is to retain his remedy against the surety, there is no fraud on the principal debtor" (k).

(3a.) If the creditor releases one cosurety.

It seems to be a settled principle at law that a release or discharge of one surety by the creditor, even when founded on a mistake of law, operates as a discharge of the others (l).

Secus, if creditor merely covenants not to sue the principal debtor or one co-surety.

But though a release of one surety is a discharge of his co-sureties, still if the release can be construed as a covenant not to sue, it will not operate as a discharge of the co-sureties (m). And the same rule applies to a covenant not to sue the principal debtor.

Creditor cannot reserve his rights against surety, if he release the principal debtor, or one co-surety.

Although a creditor upon giving time to the principal debtor, or on covenanting not to sue him, may reserve his right against the sureties, he cannot do so if he give to the debtor what amounts to an actual release, for the debt is in the latter case gone at law. It was therefore held that, where there was an agreement between a bond debtor and his creditor for the latter to take all the debtor's property, and to pay the other creditors five shillings in the pound, though it was not a discharge of the bond at law by way of

⁽k) Per Mellish, L. J., in Nevill's Case, L. R. 6 Ch. 47.
(l) Cheetham v. Ward, I B. & P. 633; Nicholson v. Revell, 4 A. & E. 675; Ex parte Jacobs, In re Jacobs, L. R. 10 Ch. App. 211.
(m) Price v. Barker, 4 Ell. & Bl. 777; Bailey v. Edwards, 4 B. & S. 761; Ex parte Good, In re Armitage, L. R. 5 Ch. Div. 46.

accord and satisfaction, still it operated in equity as a satisfaction of the debt, and it was not possible in equity upon such a transaction to reserve any rights against the surety; and any attempt to do so would be void, as being inconsistent with the agreement (n).

A surety being entitled on payment of the debt to (4.) If creditor all the securities which the creditor has against the loses or allows securities to principal, whether such securities were given at the go back into debtor's time of the contract of suretyship, with or without the hands. knowledge of the surety (o), or whether they were given after that contract, with or without the knowledge of the surety (p), it follows that, if a creditor who has had, or ought to have had, such securities, loses them, or suffers them to get back into the possession of the debtor, or does not make them effectual by giving proper notice (q), the surety, to the extent of such security, will be discharged (r). So where a creditor, by neglecting the statutory formalities, lost the benefit of an execution under a warrant of attorney, which, according to the agreement of suretyship, he had proceeded to enforce, upon a notice by the surety, it was held that the surety was thereby discharged (s).

On page 287, supra, certain general rules (there Marshalling of given) regarding the marshalling of securities were against surestated to be applicable as against sureties also (t). The ties. order of working out the successive redemptions and

⁽n) Webb v. Hewitt, 3 K. & J. 438; Nicholson v. Revell, 4 Ad. & Ell. 675; Kearsley v. Cole, 16 Mees. & W. 128.

⁽o) Mayhew v. Crickett, 2 Swanst. 185. (p) Pearl v. Deacon, 24 Beav. 186; I De G. & Jo. 461; Lake v. Brutton, 18 Beav. 34; 8 De G. M. & G. 440; Pledge v. Buss, Johnson,

⁽q) Strange v. Fooks, 4 Giff. 408.

⁽r) Capel v. Butler, 2 S. & S. 457; Law v. E. I. Co., 4 Ves. 824. (s) Watson v. Alcock, 1 Sm. & Giff. 319; 4 De G. M. & G. 242; Mayhew v. Crickett, 2 Swanst. 185, 190. (t) Kinngird v. Webster, 10 Ch. Div. 139.

foreclosures of mortgaged estates, stated on p. 302, supra, and illustrated in Beevor v. Luck (u), is applicable also to sureties (v), and is subject, as against sureties also, to the doctrine of consolidation, stated on pp. 317, 318, supra.

⁽u) L. R. 4 Eq. 537. And see Minutes (in extenso) of the Decree in Pemberton on Judgments and Orders, 2d edit. pp. 478-480. See also Bradley v. Riches, 26 W. R. 910; 9 Ch. Div. 189.

(v) Bowker v. Bull, 1 Sm. N. S. 29; Fairbrother v. Wodehouse, 23

⁽v) Bowker v. Bull, 1 Sm. N. S. 29; Fairbrother v. Wodehouse, 23 Beav. 18, 19. And distinguish Williams v. Owen, 13 Sim. 597; Dawson v. Bank of Whitehaven, L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 218, reversing S. C. as reported in L. R. 4 Ch. Div. 639

CHAPTER VI.

PARTNERSHIP.

Courts of equity exercise a full concurrent jurisdic- Partnership. tion with courts of law in all matters of partnership; indeed it may be said that the jurisdiction of courts Equity has a of equity is, practically speaking, an exclusive jurisdic-exclusive tion in all cases of any complexity or difficulty. wherever a discovery, or an account, or a contribution, or an injunction, or a dissolution is sought in cases of partnership, or where a due enforcement of partnership rights, duties, and credits is required, the remedial justice administered by courts of equity is far more complete, extensive, and various, adapting itself to the particular nature of the grievance, and granting relief in the most beneficial and effectual manner, where no redress whatsoever, or very imperfect redress, could be obtained at law. And the Judicature Act, 1873 (§ 34), has recognised this superiority, by assigning to the Chancery division of the court all matters of partnership, involving either accounts or a dissolution.

A court of equity will decree the specific performance of a contract to enter into partnership for a partnership fixed and definite period of time (a); but it will not agreement—when and do so when no term has been fixed, for such a decree when not would be useless when either of the parties might dissolve the partnership immediately afterwards (b).

⁽a) Buxton v. Lister, 3 Atk. 385; England v. Curling, 8 Beav. 129.
(b) Hercy v. Birch, 9 Ves. 357; Mr. Swanston's Note to Crawshay v. Maule, I Swanst. 511-513.

And it will not decree specific performance, even where a definite term has been fixed, unless there have been acts of part performance (c).

In like manner, after the commencement and

during the continuance of the partnership, courts of

Injunction, when and when not granted.

equity will in many cases interpose to decree a specific performance of other agreements in the articles of partnership. If, for instance, there be an agreement to insert the name of a partner in the name of the firm, so as to clothe him publicly with all the rights of acting for the partnership, and there be a studied. intentional, prolonged, and continued inattention to the application of the partner to have his name so used and inserted in the firm name, courts of equity will grant specific relief by an injunction against the use of any other firm name, not including his name. But the remedy in such cases is strictly confined to cases of studied delay and omission, and relief will not be given for a temporary, accidental, or trifling omission (d). So where there is an agreement by the partners not to engage in any other business, courts of equity will act by injunction to enforce it; and if profits have been made by any partner in violation of such an agreement in any other business, the profits will be decreed to belong to the partnership (e). A court of equity will further interfere by injunction to prevent such acts on the part of any of

omission of name of one of the partners.

(I.) Against

(2.) Against carrying on another business.

(3.) Against destruction of partnership property.

(4.) Against exclusion of partner.

the partners, as either tend to the destruction of the partnership property (f), or to impose an improper liability on the others, or to the exclusion of the other

partners from the exercise of their partnership rights,

⁽c) Scott v. Rayment, L. R. 7 Eq. 112.
(d) Marshall v. Colman, 2 J. & W. 266, 269.

⁽e) Somerville v. Mackay, 16 Ves. 382, 387, 389; England v. Curling, 8 Beav. 129.

⁽f) Miles v. Thomas, 9 Sim. 606, 609; Marshall v. Watson, 25 Beav. 501.

whether those rights be founded on the law relating to partnerships in general, or on agreement (q), and although no dissolution is prayed (h).

But it is not to be inferred that courts of equity Courts of will in all cases interfere to enforce a specific per- not enforce formance of the articles of partnership, or to issue an specific performance of injunction against the breach of these articles. Where articles where the remedy at law is entirely adequate, no relief will is entirely be granted in equity. So, where the stipulation. adequate. though not against the policy of the law, yet is an effort to divest the ordinary jurisdiction of the common tribunals of justice, such as an agreement, in case of any disputes, to refer the same to arbitration, courts of Nor of an equity would not, any more than courts of law, inter-agreement to refer to arbifere as a general rule to enforce that agreement (i). tration, unless under Com-But since the passing of the Common Law Procedure mon Law Pro-Act, 1854, courts, both of law and of equity, have 1854. shown an inclination to enforce agreements for reference under that Act, and to remit parties to the arbitration as their self-chosen exclusive forum (i), provided the question in difference is not paramount the agreement for reference (k).

A partnership may be dissolved in various ways.

I. By operation of law. Of events on which by (r.) By operation of law. operation of law the partnership is determined, the principal ones seem to be the death of one of the partners, unless there be an express stipulation to the contrary (1); the bankruptcy of all or one of the part-

Dissolution of partnership, --modes of.

⁽g) Deitrichsen v. Cabburn, 2 Ph. 59.

⁽h) Hall v. Hall, 12 Beav. 414.

⁽i) Street v. Rigby, 6 Ves. 815; British Emp. Shipping Co. v. Somes, 3 K. & J. 433.

⁽j) Seligmann v. De Boutillier, I. R. I C. P. 681; Willesford v.

Watson, L. R. 14 Eq. 572, 20 W. R. 32.
(k) Mulkern v. Lord, 4 App. Ca. 182.
(l) Gillespie v. Hamilton, 3 Mad. 251; Crawshay v. Maule, 1 Swanst.
495; and see Buckhouse v. Charlton, 8 Ch. Div. 444.

ners (m); the conviction of any one of them for felony (n); or a general assignment by one or more of the partners, whether the partnership be determinable at will, or, it seems, even where it is for a definite period (o). To these may, perhaps, be added any event which makes either the partnership itself, or the objects for which it was formed, illegal (p). In these cases the partnership determines by operation of law from the happening of the particular event, without any option of any of the parties.

2. By agreement of parties. 2. By agreement of parties. By mutual agreement of *all* the partners, the partnership, though for an unexpired term, may be put an end to (q).

Partnership at will may be dissolved at any moment.1

Any member of an ordinary partnership, the duration of which is indefinite, may dissolve it at any moment he pleases; and the partnership will then be deemed to continue only so far as may be necessary for the purposes of winding up its then pending affairs (r). But at the same time, the Court of Chancery would restrain an immediate dissolution and sale of the partnership property, if it appeared that irreparable mischief would ensue from such a proceeding (s).

Dissolution by event provided for.

A partnership may also expire by the efflux of the time fixed upon by the partners for the limit of its duration (t).

Partnership continuing But in the case of a partnership for a term, if after the term the business is carried on as before, instead

⁽m) Barker v. Goodair, 11 Ves. 83, 86; Crawshay v. Collins, 15 Ves. 228.

⁽n) 2 Bl. Com. 409; Co. Litt. 391 a.

⁽o) Heath v. Sansom, 4 B. & Ad. 172; Nerot v. Burnard, 4 Russ. 247.
(p) Esposito v. Bowden, 7 E. & B. 763, 785; Dixon on Partnership, 431, 432.

⁽q) Hall v. Hall, 12 Beav. 414. (r) Peacock v. Peacock, 16 Ves. 50.

⁽⁸⁾ Lindley on Partnership, 232; Blisset v. Daniel, 10 Hare, 493; see Pothier Partn. s. 150; also Levy v. Walker, 10 Ch. Div. 436.

⁽t) Featherstonhaugh v. Fenwick, 17 Ves. 298-307.

of being wound up according to the terms of the after term articles, or by sale as required by law in the absence agreed on, is a of special provisions, the partnership will continue, and will, on old terms. will be deemed a partnership at will upon the terms of the original partnership, so far as those terms are applicable (u).

- 3. Dissolution by decree of a court of equity. A 3. By decree court of equity will, in many cases, decree a dissolu- of court. tion at the instance of a partner, though he cannot by his own act dissolve the partnership. The following are the principal cases in which, and grounds upon which, the court has decreed a dissolution:-
- (a.) A partnership may be dissolved as from its Partnership commencement, where it has originated in fraud, mis-fraud. representation, or oppression (v).
- (b.) If one partner grossly misconducts himself in Gross misreference to partnership matters, acting in breach of breach of the trust and confidence between the partners, this will trust. be a ground for a dissolution (w).
- (c.) So, if there have been continual breaches of Continual breaches of the partnership contract by one of the parties, as if he contract. has persisted in carrying on the business in a manner totally different from that agreed on, the court will dissolve the partnership (x). But there must be a substantial failure in the performance of the agreement on the part of the defendant; it is not the office of a court of equity to enter into a consideration of mere partnership squabbles (y).

 ⁽u) Parsons v. Hayward, 31 Beav. 199.; 31 L. J. Ch. 666.
 (v) Rawlins v. Wickham, 1 Giff. 355; 7 W. R. 145; Hue v. Richards,

² Beav. 305.
(w) Smith v. Jeyes, 4 Beav. 503; Harrison v. Tennant, 21 Beav. 482.
(x) Waters v. Taylor, 2 V. & B. 299.

⁽y) Wray v. Hutchinson, 2 My. & K. 235; Anderson v. Anderson, 25 Beav. 190.

Wilful and permanent neglect of business.

(d.) If a partner who ought to attend to the business wilfully and permanently absents himself from it, or becomes so engrossed in his private affairs as to be unable to attend to it, this would seem, independently of agreement, to be a ground for dissolution (z).

Extreme disagreements or incompatibility of temper.

(e.) And although the court will not dissolve a partnership merely on account of the disagreement or incompatibility of temper of the partners, where there has been no breach of the contract (a); yet, if the disagreements are so great as to render it impossible to carry on the business, all mutual confidence being destroyed, there cannot be a doubt that the court will dissolve the partnership (b).

Insanity of partner,— whose skill is indispensable.

(f.) Whenever a partner, who is to contribute his skill and industry in carrying on the business, or who has a right to a voice in the partnership, becomes permanently insane, a court of equity will dissolve the partnership (c). Insanity of a partner is not, however, in the absence of agreement, ipso facto a dissolution, but is only a ground (the case being otherwise proper) for dissolution by decree of the court (d).

Share in partnership a right to money.

The share of a partner is his proportion of the partnership assets after they have been all realised and converted into money, and all the debts and liabilities of the firm have been paid and discharged: and it is this only which on the death of a partner passes to his representatives (e).

⁽z) Harrison v. Tennant, 21 Beav. 482; Smith v. Mules, 9 Hare, 556. (a) Goodman v. Whitcomb, I J. & W. 589, 592; Jauncey v. Knowles,

²⁹ L. J. Ch. 95.
(b) Baxter v. West, 1 Dr. & Sm. 173; Watney v. Wells, 30 Beav.

^{56;} Leary v. Short, 33 Beav. 582.

(c) Waters v. Taylor, 2 V. & B. 303; Patey v. Patey, 5 L. J. Ch. N. S. 198; Anon. 2 K. & J. 441; Rowlands v. Evans, 30 Beav. 302.

(d) Jones v. Noy, 2 My. & K. 125.

(e) Lindley on Partnership, 681; Knox v. Gye, L. R. 5 H. L. 656;

Noves v. Crawley, 10 Ch. Div. 31.

Where a dissolution has taken place, not only will Account on an account be decreed, but, if necessary, a manager Receiver apor receiver will be appointed to close the partnership pointed only in case of disbusiness, and make sale of the partnership property, solution. so that a final distribution may be made of the partnership effects; but a manager or receiver will not be appointed except with a view to a dissolution (f).

As to decreeing an account where no dissolution is Account intended or prayed, the general rule is, that where a solution is partner has been excluded, or the conduct of the other prayed. party has been such as would entitle the complaining partner to a dissolution as against him, a general account, at any rate up to the time of filing the bill, will be decreed; but that in no case will a continuous account be decreed, as that would be, in part at least, a carrying on of the business by the Court of Chancery (g).

A partnership, though in a certain sense expiring Partner makon any of the events that have been mentioned—such out of the as death, effluxion of time, or bankruptcy of a partner partnership property, ac-—does not expire to all purposes; for all the partners countable to are interested in the business until all the affairs of ners. the partnership have been finally settled by all (h). Hence the partners thus continuing a business are accountable to the rest, not merely for the ordinary profits, but for all the advantages which they have obtained in the course of the business (i).

But there is no fiduciary relation between the sur-Representa-

⁽f) St. 672; Hall v. Hall, 3 Mac. & G. 79; Baxter v. West, 28 L. J. Ch. 160.

⁽g) Dixon on Partnership, 193; St. 671; Loscombe v. Russell, 4 Sim. 8; Fairthorne v. Weston, 3 Hare, 387.

⁽h) Crawshay v. Collins, 2 Russ. 344.
(i) Clements v. Hall, 2 De G. & J. 173; Willett v. Blanford, 1 Hare, 253; Wedderburn v. Wedderburn, 22 Beav. 84; 2 Sp. 208. And distinguish Dean v. M'Dowell, 8 Ch. Div. 345.

tives of deceased partners entitled to an account, but have no lien.

viving partners and the representatives of the deceased partner; therefore, although they may respectively sue each other in equity, their rights are legal rights for an account, and will be barred by the Statute of Limitations (i). The representatives, moreover, have no lien on any specific part of the partnership estate, which in the first instance accrues in its entirety to the surviving partners, both at law and in equity.

In equity land forming an asset of the partnership is money.

From the principle that the share of a partner is nothing more than his proportion of the partnership assets after they have been turned into money, and applied in liquidation of the partnership debts, it necessarily follows that, in equity, a share in a partnership, whether its property consists of land or not, must, as between the real and personal representatives of a deceased partner, be deemed to be personal and not real estate, unless indeed such conversion is inconsistent with the agreement between the parties (k).

And personal representative takes.

Not only are lands purchased out of partnership Immaterial whether land funds for partnership purposes, treated in equity as has been purpersonalty (l), but the rule is the same in certain cases chased or devised, so long where lands have been acquired by devise, the quesas "involved in" the busition in every case being, as was said by James, L. J., ness. in Waterer v. Waterer (m), whether or not the lands are "substantially involved in the business."

Creditors may, on decease of one partner, go against sur-

vivors, or against the

ceased.

estate of de-

In cases of partnership debts, on the decease of one partner, the creditors may, at their option, pursue their legal remedies against the survivors or survivor, or resort in equity to the estate of the deceased, and this altogether without regard to the state of the accounts

⁽j) Knox v. Gye, L. R. 5 H. L. 656.

⁽k) Lindley on Partnership, 687; Darby v. Darby, 3 Drew. 495; Steward v. Blakeway, L. R. 4 Ch. 603; Wylie v. Wylie, 4 Gr. 278.
(l) Phillips v. Phillips, 1 M. & K. 649.
(m) L. R. 15 Eq. 402; Lindley on Partnership, 687.

between the partners themselves, or to the ability of the survivors or survivor to pay (n).

The liability of partners, although sometimes called Separate crejoint and several, differs in important particulars from of separate a joint and several liability. Thus, although the sepa-estate before rate estate of the deceased is liable, yet it is liable creditors. only as for a joint debt; consequently the separate creditors of the deceased are entitled to be paid their debts in full, before the creditors of the partnership can claim anything from his separate estate (o). Hence, a creditor of the partnership, who is also a debtor to the deceased, cannot, in an administration of the deceased's estate, set off his separate debt against the joint debt due to him (p). But a joint debt contracted in fraud of any of the partners may, at the option of the creditor, be treated as a joint or as a separate debt (q).

On the other hand, the creditors of the partnership Partnership have a right to the payment of their debts, out of the reditors paid partnership funds, before the private creditors of the out of partnership funds, partners. But this preference was, at law, generally before separdisregarded; in equity it was worked out through the ate creditors. equity of the partners over the whole fund (r); and now there is no distinction between law and equity in this respect, except that the jurisdiction is assigned exclusively to the Chancery division of the court. The rule is the same even although the partnership is ostensible only (s).

⁽n) Baring v. Noble, 2 R. & My. 495.
(o) Gray v. Chiswell, 9 Ves. 118; Ridgway v. Clare, 19 Beav. 111; Ex parte Wilson, 3 M. D. & De G. 57.
(p) Stephenson v. Chiswell, 3 Ves. 566.
(g) Ex parte Adamson, in re Collie, 8 Ch. Div. 807.
(r) Twiss v. Massey, 1 Atk. 67; Campbell v. Mullett, 2 Swanst. 574. And see Lacey v. Hill, L. R. 4 Ch. Div. 537, affirmed successively in the Court of Appeal and in the House of Lords.

⁽⁸⁾ In re Pulsford, 8 Ch. Div. 11; Ex parte Sheen, 6 Ch. Div. 235.

Two firms having a common partner could not sue one another at law, but might do so in equity.

Another illustration of the beneficial result of equity jurisdiction, in cases of partnership, may be found in the case of two firms dealing with each other, where some or all of the partners in one firm are partners with other persons in the other firm. Upon the technical principles of the common law in such cases no suit could be maintained at law in regard to any transactions or debts between the two firms (t). But there was no difficulty in proceeding in courts of equity to a final adjustment of all the concerns of both firms, in regard to each other; for, in equity, it was sufficient that all parties in interest were before the court as plaintiffs or as defendants, and they need not, as at law, in such a case, have been on opposite sides of the record. In equity, all contracts and dealings between such firms, of a moral and legal nature, were deemed obligatory, though void at law. Courts of equity, in such cases, looked behind the form of the transactions to their substance, and treated the different firms, for the purposes of substantial justice, exactly as if they were composed of strangers, or were, in fact, corporate companies (u). And the rules of equity now prevail in these respects in all divisions of the court.

At law, one partner cannot sue his co-partners in a partnership transactionhe may in equity.

Upon similar grounds, one partner could not, at law, maintain a suit against his co-partners to recover the amount of money which he had paid for the partnership, since he could not sue them without suing himself, also, as one of the partnership (v), but he might have done so in equity; and now the rule of equity prevails.

 ⁽t) Bosanquet v. Wray, 6 Taunt. 597.
 (u) Mainwaring v. Newman, 2 B. & P. 120; St. 679, 680; De Tastet

v. Shaw, 1 B. & A. 664.
(v) Wright v. Hunter, 5 Ves. 792; Bovill v. Hammond, 6 B. & C. 151; Sedgwick v. Daniell, 2 H. & N. 319; Atwood v. Maude, L. R. 3 Ch. 369. And see Brown's Law Dictionary, title Partnership.

CHAPTER VII.

ACCOUNT.

I. THE action of account was one of the most ancient I. Account. forms of action at the common law. But the modes of proceeding in that action, although aided from time to time by statute, were found so very dilatory, incon- At common venient, and unsatisfactory, that as soon as courts of law, dilatory equity began (and they began very early) to assume nient. jurisdiction in matters of account, the remedy at law began to decline, and fell into disuse.

At the common law an action of account lay in two when account classes of cases:-

- I. Where there was either a privity in deed by the I. In cases of consent of the party, as against a bailiff, a receiver privity of deed or law. appointed by the party; or a privity in law, ex provisione legis, as against guardians in socage (a), and their executors and administrators (b).
- 2. By the law merchant, one naming himself a 2. Between merchant, might have an account against another, merchants. naming him as a merchant, and charge him as a receiver (c), or against his executors (d).

And the reasons for the disuse of the action of suitors preaccount at common law, and its progress in equity, ferred equity, because of its are not hard to find—one ground was, that courts of power of discovery and of common law could not compel a discovery from the administra-

⁽a) Co. Litt. 90 b.

⁽c) Co. Litt. 172 a.; 11 Co. R. 89.

⁽b) 3 & 4 Anne, c. 16. (d) 13 Edw. III. c. 23.

defendant on his oath; another ground was, that the machinery and administrative powers of the courts of common law were not so well adapted for the purposes of an account as those of the courts of equity.

In what cases equity allows an account.

Courts of common law having failed to give due relief in cases of account, suitors were obliged, in most cases, to come into equity for that purpose. becomes necessary to examine in what cases equity will afford such relief. It should be premised, however, that since the coming into operation of the Judicature Acts, 1873-75, the jurisdiction in account has become co-extensive at law and in equity; consequently, that in all matters of account whatsoever, equity now has jurisdiction although the accounts should be ever so simple, and although law would therefore be the more proper forum; and on the other hand, law also now has jurisdiction in all matters of account, even the most complicated, and even when a fiduciary relation is involved in the case. But in all these last-mentioned cases, the equity division is the properer and more convenient jurisdiction; and we propose therefore to set forth the principal of such lastmentioned cases in which an action for an account more properly lies in the equity division.

1. Principal against agent, subject to the statute of limitations.

I. Equity will assume jurisdiction where there exists a fiduciary relation between the parties; as in favour of a principal against his agent, though not in favour of the agent against the principal. The rule is thus stated by Sir J. Leach (e):—"The defendants here were agents for the sale of the property of the plaintiff, and wherever such a relation exists a bill will lie for an account; the plaintiffs can only learn from the discovery of the defendants how they have acted in the execution of their agency." But an agent is not pre-

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cluded from setting up the Statute of Limitations against his principal, unless a confidential relation in the nature of a trust has been created (f).

It has been argued that if the principal may com-Agent cannot mence an action against his agent, the agent may like-count against wise do so against his principal; but the rights of his principal principal and agent are not correlative. The right of the principal rests upon the trust and confidence reposed in the agent, but the agent reposes no such confidence in the principal (g).

By analogy to the case of principal against agent, the (a.):Patentee against inCourt of Chancery decrees an account against the in-fringer.

fringer of a patent, on the ground that the patentee may adopt the acts of the defendant as those of an agent.

From this principle it follows, that the plaintiff in such a suit must elect between an account and damages. He cannot claim both, and at the same time approbate and reprobate the agency of the defendant (h).

Cases of account between trustees and cestui que (b.) Cestui que trust may properly be deemed confidential agencies, trustee. and are peculiarly within the jurisdiction of courts of equity (i).

2. It seems that equity will assume jurisdiction 2. Cases of where there are mutual accounts between the plaintiff mutual accounts between plaintiff and defendant.

Cases of mutual accounts between the plaintiff and defendant.

As to what are mutual accounts, the best definition is to be found in the judgment in *Phillips* v. *Phil-*

⁽f) In re Hindmarsh, I Dr. & Sm. 129; Burdick v. Garrick, L. R. 5 Ch. 233.

⁽g) Padwick v. Stanley, 9 Hare, 627; Smith v. Leveaux, 33 L. J. Ch. 167.

⁽h) Neilson v. Betts, L. R. 5 H. L. I. (i) Docker v. Somes, 2 My. & Keen, 664.

" Mutual accounts "two parties has received and also paid on the other's account. .

lips (j). "I understand a mutual account to mean where each of not merely where one of the two parties has received money and paid it on account of the other, but where each of two parties has received and also paid on the other's account. I take the reason of that distinction to be, that in the case of proceedings at law, where each of the two parties has received and paid on account of the other, what would be to be recovered would be the balance of the two accounts; and the party plaintiff would be required to prove, not merely that the other party had received money on his account, but also to enter into evidence of his own receipts and payments—a position of the case which, to say the least, would be difficult to be dealt with at law. Where one party has merely received and paid moneys on account of the other, it becomes a simple case. The party plaintiff has to prove that the moneys have been received, and the other party has to prove his payments. The question is only as to receipts on the one side and payments on the other, and it is a mere question of set-off; but it is otherwise where each party has received and paid (k).

No account if it is a mere question of set-off.

3. Circumstances of great complication.

The test is-Can the accounts be examined on a trial at Nisi Prius?

3. An action for an account will also lie where there are circumstances of great complication. As to what is the criterion of the amount of complication necessary to give jurisdiction to a court of equity, independently of any other circumstances, the judgment of Lord Redesdale in O'Connor v. Spaight (1), is in point:—"The ground on which I think that this is a proper case for equity is, that the account has become so complicated that a court of law would be incompetent to examine it upon a trial at nisi prius with all necessary accuracy. . . . This is a principle on which courts of equity constantly act, by taking cognisance

⁽j) 9 Hare, 471.

⁽k) Padwick v. Hurst, 18 Beav. 575; Fluker v. Taylor, 3 Drew. 183. (l) I Sch. & Lefr. 305.

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of matters which, though cognisable at law, are yet so involved with a complex account that it cannot properly be taken at law." But this principle is not quite settled (m); and it is by no means to be taken as a universally conclusive criterion, especially as the Common Law judges have a special power conferred on them by the Procedure Act of 1854 (n), on a cause Compulsory coming on at nisi prius, to compel a reference to arbi-reference to tration; and now under the Judicature Acts, 1873–75, $^{17}_{c.}$ $^{18}_{c.}$ $^{$ and rules thereunder, matters of account as well as and references other matters may be variously referred to an official sorts for reor other referee for report (o). And the suggested port under Judicature rule, therefore, cannot perhaps be put higher than Acts, 1873-75, this—that the difficulty of examining the accounts at nisi prius will be a strong circumstance in favour of a resort to the aid of equity. In short, the equity to an account must be judged from the nature and facts of each particular case (p).

It is ordinarily a good bar to a suit for an account Chief defences that the parties have already, in writing, stated and account. adjusted the items of the account, and struck the (1.) Stated or balance (q). In such a case a court of equity will not count. interfere, for, under such circumstances, an indebitatus assumpsit lies at law, and there is no ground for resorting to equity. If, therefore, there has been an account stated, that may be set up by way of plea, as a bar to all discovery and relief, unless some matter is shown which calls for the interposition of a court of equity. But if there has been any mistake, or omission, Equity will

⁽m) Taff Vale Rail. Co. v. Nixon, 1 H. L. Cas. 111; South-Eastern Rail. Co. v. Martin, 2 Phill. 758; I Hall. & Twells, 69; Phillips v. Phillips, 9 Hare, 475.

⁽n) 17 & 18 Vict. c. 125, s. 3. (o) Longman v. East, Pontifex v. Severn, Mellin v. Monico, 26 W. R.

⁽p) Phillips v. Phillips, 9 Hare, 475; South-East. Rail. Co. v. Martin, 2 Phil. 758; I Hall. & Twells, 69. (g) Dawson v. Dawson, I Atk. I.

"open" the whole account if there be mistake or fraud; and in other cases particular items only will be examined, i.e., liberty will be given to "surcharge" and "falsify."

or accident, or fraud, or undue advantage, by which the account stated is in truth vitiated, and the balance is incorrectly fixed, a court of equity will not suffer it to be conclusive upon the parties, but will, in some cases, direct the whole account to be opened, and taken de novo. In other cases, where the mistake, or omission, or inaccuracy, or fraud, or imposition, is not shown to affect or stain all the items of the transaction, the court will content itself with allowing the account to stand, with liberty to the plaintiff to surcharge and falsify it—the effect of which is to leave the account in full force, as a stated account, except so far as it can be impugned by the opposing party, who has the burden of proof on him to establish errors and mis-The showing an omission, for which credit takes. ought to be given, is a surcharge; the proving an item to be wrongly inserted is a falsification. onus probandi is always on the party having liberty to surcharge and falsify (r). And this liberty to surcharge and falsify includes an examination not only of errors of fact, but of errors of law. What shall constitute, in the sense of a court of equity, a stated or settled account, is in some measure dependent on the circumstances of each case. An acceptance of an account may be express, or it may be implied from circumstances. Acquiescence in stated accounts, even though for a long time, although it amounts to an admission or presumption of their correctness, does not of itself establish the fact of the account having been settled (s).

(2.) Laches, and acquiescence. The court is generally unwilling to open a settled account, especially after a long time has elapsed, except in cases of apparent fraud. But in cases of settled accounts between trustee and cestui que trust, and other

⁽r) Pitt v. Cholmondeley, 2 Ves. Sr. 565.

⁽s) Hunter v. Belcher, 2 De G. J. & S. 194, 202; Gething v. Keighley, 9 Ch. Div. 547.

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persons standing in confidential relations to one another, where *mala fides* is alleged, there is scarcely any length of time that will prevent the court from opening the account altogether (t), or at any rate giving liberty to surcharge and falsify.

And it should be remembered, that a broker is in a Broker and fiduciary relation to his client (u), although a banker banker,—difference is not in any such relation towards his customer (v). between. Also, semble, an assurance society is not in any fiduciary relation towards the person entitled to the policy moneys, but is rather in the position of a mere stakeholder (w).

⁽t) Matthews v. Wallwyn, 4 Ves. 125; Todd v. Wilson, 9 Beav. 486; Watson v. Rodwell, L. R. 7 Ch. Div. 625; 11 Ch. Div. 150; and see pp. 168, 169, supra.

⁽u) Ex parte Cooke, In re Strachan, L. R. 4 Ch. Div. 123.
(v) Foley v. Hill, 1 Phill. 405.

⁽v) Matthew v. Northern Assurance Co., 9 Ch. Div. 80. But see In re Haycock's Policy, I Ch. Div. 611; Crossley v. City of Glasgow Life Assurance Co., 4 Ch. Div. 421.

CHAPTER VIII.

SET-OFF AND APPROPRIATION OF PAYMENTS.

"Natural equity says that cross demands I. Set-off.

should compensate each other, by deducting the less

off in case of mutual unconnected debts.

sum from the greater: and that the difference is the only sum which can be justly due" (α). But the com-At law, no set- mon law refused to carry out this principle of justice, and held that where the mutual debts were unconnected. they should not be set-off, but the respective creditors should sue in independent actions for them. natural sense of mankind was shocked at this, and accordingly the legislature interfered, firstly, in the case of bankrupts, and allowed a set-off at common law in that and a few other cases by the statutes of "Set-off" (b).

As to connected accounts, balance recoverable both at law and in equity.

As to connected accounts of debit and credit, it is certain that both at law and in equity, and without any reference to the last-mentioned statutes, or the tribunal in which the cause is depending, the same general principle prevails, that the balance of the accounts only is recoverable; which is, therefore, a virtual adjustment and set-off between the parties (c).

Cases in which equity allowed, although law did not allow, set-off.

Even equity generally followed the law as to set-off. but with limitations and restrictions. If there was no connection between the demands, then the rule was as at law; but if there was a connection between the

⁽a) Green v. Farmer, 4 Burr. 2220.

⁽b) 4 Anne, c. 17, s. 11; 2 Geo. II. c. 22, s. 13; 8 Geo. II. c. 24,

⁽c) Dale v. Sollet, 4 Burr. 2133.

demands, equity acted upon it, and allowed a set-off under particular circumstances (d).

In the first place, then, it would seem, independently (1.) In the of the statutes of set-off, courts of equity, in virtue of case of mutual independent their general jurisdiction, were accustomed to grant debts where there was relief in all cases, where there were mutual and inde-mutual credit. pendent debts, and there was a mutual credit between the parties, founded at the time upon the existence of some debts, due by the crediting party to the other. By mutual credit, in the sense in which the terms are here used, was to be understood a knowledge, on both sides, of an existing debt due to one party and a credit by the other party, founded on and trusting to such debt as a means of discharging it (e). Thus, for example if A. should be indebted to B. in the sum of £10,000 in a bond, and B. should borrow of A. £2000 on his own bond, the bonds being payable at different times, the nature of the transaction would lead to the presumption that there was a mutual credit between the parties as to the £2000, as an ultimate set-off. pro tanto, against the debt of £10,000. Now, in such a case, a court of law could not set-off these independent debts against each other; but a court of equity would not hesitate to do so, upon the ground either of the presumed intention of the parties, or of what was called a natural equity (f). And now under the Judicature Acts, 1873-75, and orders and rules thereunder, especially Order xix., Rule 3, in extension of the C. L. P. Act. 1854 (q), such independent debts contracted upon such a ground of mutual credit may be set-off against each other.

In the next place, as to equitable debts, or a legal (2.) In the

⁽d) Rawson v. Samuel, 1 Cr. & Ph. 161, 172, 173.

⁽e) Ex parte Prescot, 1 Atk. 230. (f) Lanesborough v. Jones, 1 P. Wms. 326; Jeffs v. Wood, 2 P. Wms. 128. (g) Bullen and Leake, p. 570.

equitable debts, or a legal debt on one side, and on the other, where there was mutual credit as to such debts.

case of mutual debt on one side, and an equitable debt on the other, there was great reason to believe that, whenever there was a mutual credit between the parties touching such equitable debt debts, a set-off was upon that ground alone maintainable in equity; although the mere existence of mutual debts, without such mutual credit, might not, even in a case of insolvency, have sustained it (h). But the mere existence of cross demands would not have been sufficient to justify a set-off in equity (i). Indeed, a set-off was ordinarily allowed in equity only when the party seeking the benefit of it could show some equitable ground for being protected against his adversary's demand—the mere existence of cross demands was not A fortiori a court of equity would not interfere on the ground of an equitable set-off to prevent a party recovering a sum awarded to him for damages for breach of contract, merely because there was an unsettled account between him and the other party, in respect of dealings arising out of the same contract (i). But now there would be a set-off both at law and in equity in all these cases.

In cross deif recoverable at law, would be a subject of set-off, equity relieves.

However, where there were cross demands between mands which, the parties of such a nature that, if both were recoverable at law, they would be the subject of a set-off, then if either of the demands was a matter of equitable jurisdiction, the set-off would be enforced in equity (k). As, for example, if a legal debt was due to the defendant by the plaintiff, and the plaintiff was the assignee of a legal debt due to a third person from the plaintiff, which had been duly assigned to himself, a court of equity would set-off the one against the other, if both debts could properly be the subject of set-off

⁽h) James v. Kynnier, 5 Ves. 110; Piggott v. Williams, 6 Mad. 95.
(i) Rawson v. Samuel, 1 Cr. & Ph. 161.

⁽j) St. 1436; Rawson v. Samuel, 1 Cr. & Ph. 161; Best v. Hill, L. R. 8 C. P. 10.

⁽k) Clarke v. Cort, I Cr. & Ph. 154.

at law (l). And now there would be no difficulty in setting off such cross demands either at law or in equity.

But a set-off always was, and still will be, prevented In winding up, by some intervening equity. Thus, a shareholder in a against calls. limited company, who is also a creditor, will not, in the event of the company being wound up, be allowed to set-off his debt against calls made on him; but must first pay the amount of all calls due, and then take a dividend rateably with other creditors. In this case the equity of the general creditors intervenes to prevent the set-off; otherwise, in the event of a deficiency of assets, the creditor-shareholder would get an undue preference, and in effect receive 20s. in the pound on the amount of his debt (m). And there is no set-off other cases of of non-actionable claims against an actionable debt (n). But a solicitor's lien on costs appears to be no longer a bar to a set-off of costs against debt (o).

In Bankruptcy, where there have been mutual cre-Bankruptcy dits, mutual debts, or other mutual dealings between Bankruptcy Act 1869, the bankrupt and any other person proving or claiming 32 & 33 Viet., to prove a debt under the bankruptcy, . . . the sum due from one party shall be set-off against any sum due from the other party; and this rule extends to a case of liquidated damages (p). And, semble, it extends also to unliquidated damages (q).

In the next place, courts of equity following the law No set-off of

⁽l) St. 1436 a; Williams v. Davies, 2 Sim, 461.

⁽m) Grissell's Case, L. R. 1 Ch. 528; Black & Co's. Case, L. R. 8 P. Ch. 254; but see Brighton Arcade Company v. Dowling, L. R. 3 C. P.

⁽n) Rawley v. Rawley, I Q. B. Div. 460; and see Hodgson v. Fox, 9 Ch. Div. 673.

⁽o) Pringle v. Gloag, 10 Ch. Div. 676.

⁽p) Booth v. Hutchinson, L. R. 15 Eq. 30; and see Judicature Act, 1873, s. 25, § 1.

⁽q) Bankruptcy Act, 1869, s. 31; Judicature Acts, Order xix., 2, 3.

in different rights.

debts accruing would not allow a set-off of a joint debt against a separate debt, or, conversely, of a separate debt against a joint debt; or, to state the proposition more generally, they would not allow a set-off of debts accruing in different rights; and, therefore, where an executor and trustee of a legacy, who was also the residuary legatee, had become the creditor of the husband and administrator of the deceased legatee, he was not, in the absence of any special agreement, allowed to set-off his debt against the legacy, to which the husband, having survived his wife the legatee, was as such administrator entitled (r).

Except under special cirfraud.

But special circumstances might occur creating an special circumstances, as equity which would justify the interposition of the court, even where the cross demands existed in different rights. Thus, in Ex parte Stephens (s), bankers were directed to lay out money in certain annuities, in the name and to the use of S. They did not do so: but, representing that they had done so, made entries and accounted for the dividends accordingly. S. afterwards, relying on their representations, gave a joint and several promissory note, with her brother, to the bank, to secure the brother's private debt to them. The bankers afterwards failed, and their assignees in bankruptcy sued the brother alone. A petition was then presented by S. and her brother, praying that the petitioners might be at liberty to set-off what was due on the note against the debt due by the bankrupts to S., that she might prove for the residue, that the note might be delivered up, and the assignees might be restrained from suing upon it; and it was accordingly so decreed (t). And now under the Judicature Acts, 1873-75, especially Order xvii., Rules 1, 3, and 4, what was formerly

⁽r) Freeman v. Lomas, 9 Hare, 109; Lambarde v. Older, 17 Beav. 542; Bailey v. Finch, L. R. 7 Q. B. 34.

⁽s) II Ves. 24. (s) 11 1.3.2.4. (t) Vullsamy v. Noble, 3 Mer. 593; Ex parte Hanson, 12 Ves. 346; 18 Ves. 232; Cawdor v. Lewis, 1 You. & Coll. Exch. C. 427, 433.

permitted in exceptional cases only, is now apparently made the rule, so that debts accrued in different rights may be now set-off, semble.

II. Appropriation of payments. Questions as to the II. Appropriaappropriation, or, as it is termed in the Roman law, imputation the imputation, of payments, arise in this way. Sup- of payments. pose a person owing another several debts makes a payment to him, the question then arises, to which of these debts shall such payment be appropriated or imputed,—a matter often of considerable importance, not only to the debtor and creditor, but sometimes also to third persons. For instance, suppose A. owes to B. two distinct sums of £100 and £100, and A. could set up the Statute of Limitations as a defence to an action for the earlier of the two debts, but not to an action brought for the other, it is clear that if A. paid £100 to B., and that payment could be imputed to the earlier debt, B. could still recover from him another £100; whereas if it were appropriated to the later debt, he would be without remedy as to the earlier. Again, suppose A. owes B. two sums of £500, for the first of which C. is a surety; if A. pays B. £500, and it is imputed to the first £500, C.'s liability will cease; if it be imputed to the other £500, C.'s liability will remain (u).

The first rule upon the subject of appropriation is,— (1.) Debtor that the debtor has the first right to appropriate any to appropriate payments which he makes to whatever debt, due to payments to which debt he his creditor, he may choose to apply it, provided the chooses at debtor exercise this option at the time of making the ment. payment (v). And the intention of the person making the payment may not only be manifested by him in

⁽u) Clayton's Case, I Mer. 572; Tudor's L. C. Merc. Law, 17. (v) St. 459 c.; Anon. Cro. Eliz. 68.

express terms (w), but it may be inferred from his conduct at the time of payment, or from the nature of the transaction (x).

(2.) If debtor omit, the creditor has the next right of appropriation to what debts he chooses.

In the next place, where the debtor has himself made no special appropriation of any payment, then the creditor is at liberty to apply that payment to any one or more of the debts which the debtor owes him (y); and it seems that the creditor need not make an immediate appropriation of it, but may do so at any time, at least before action (z). This privilege of the creditor, however, must be taken with this limitation, that he has no right to apply a general payment to an item in the account which is in itself illegal and contrary to law (a).

However, where A. was indebted to B. on several accounts, and a payment had been made, as for the first instalment of a composition on the several debts; but the arrangement subsequently broke down, owing to the non-payment of the other instalments; it was held, that it was not open to either party subsequently to appropriate the payment to any specific debt; but that, from the nature of the transaction, it must be deemed to have been paid in respect of all the debts rateably (b).

Statute-barred debts, appropriation, effect of:

Where there are two debts, one of them barred by the Statute of Limitations, and a payment is made by the debtor without appropriating the payment, the

⁽w) Ex parte Imbert, I De G. & Jo. 152.

⁽x) Young v. English, 7 Beav. 10; Att.-Gen. of Jamaica v. Mander-

son, 6 Moo. P. C. C. 239, 255; Buchanan v. Kerby, 5 Gr. 332.

(y) Lysaght v. Walker, 5 Bligh, N. S. 1, 28; Re Brown, 2 Gr. 111, 590.

⁽z) Philpott v. Jones, 4 Nev. & Man. 16; 2 Ad. & Ell. 44; Simson v. Ingham, 2 B. & C. 65.

⁽a) Wright v. Laing, 3 B. & C. 165; Ribbans v. Crickett, I B. & P. 264.

⁽b) Thompson v. Hudson, L. R. 6 Ch. 320.

creditor may appropriate it towards satisfaction of the (a.) Approdebt already barred; but such an appropriation will priation will not revive a have no operation to revive a debt already barred (c). debt already barred. And where there are several debts, some of which are (b.) A general barred, if a payment is made on account of principal payment by debtor takes a or interest generally, the effect of such payment will debt not be to take out of the operation of the statute any debt out of the which is not barred at the time of payment, but it will does not renot revive a debt which is then barred; and the in-vive a barred ference will be that the payment is to be attributed to those not barred (d).

If neither debtor nor creditor has made any appro- (3.) If neither priation, then the law will appropriate the payment, creditor makes it seems, to the earlier, and not, as the Roman law the appropriadoes, to the more burdensome debt (e).

This rule receives its most frequent application in Clayton's cases of running accounts between parties, where there Case, are various items of debts on one side, and various counts, law of appropriation items of credit on the other side, occurring at different in cases of. times, as in a banking account. In Clayton's Case (f), on the death of D., a partner in a banking firm, there was a balance of £1713 in favour of C., who had a running account with the firm. After the death of D., the surviving partners became bankrupt; but, before their bankruptcy, C. had drawn out sums to a larger amount than £1713, and had paid in sums still more considerable. It was held that the sums drawn out by C. after the death of D. must be appropriated to the payment of the balance of £1713 then due, and that consequently the estate of D. was discharged from the debt due from the firm at his death, the sums subsequently paid in by C. constituting a new debt, for which the surviving members of the firm were

⁽c) Mills v. Fowkes, 5 Bing. N. C. 455. (d) Nash v. Hodgson, 6 De G. M. & G. 474.

⁽e) Mills v. Fowkes, 5 Bing. N. C. 455. See Pothier Oblig. by (f) 1 Mer. 585. Evans, 528-535, 561-572.

alone liable. In such a case, the sums paid to the

creditor are deemed to be paid upon the general blended account, and go to extinguish pro tanto the balance of the old firm, in the order of the earliest items thereof. "In such a case, there is no room for any other appropriation than that which arises from the order in which the receipts and payments take place, and are carried into the account. Presumably it is the sum first paid in that is first drawn out. is the first item on the debit side of the account that is discharged or reduced by the first item on the credit side. The appropriation is made by the very act of setting the two items against each other. Upon that principle all accounts current are settled, and particularly cash accounts. When there has been a continuation of dealings, in what way can it be ascertained whether the specific balance due on a given day has or has not been discharged, but by examining whether payments The account is to the amount of that balance appear by the account to have been made. You are not to take the account backwards, and strike the balance at the head, instead of at the foot of it. A man's banker breaks owing him on the whole account a balance of £1000. would surprise one to hear the customer say, 'I have been fortunate enough to draw out all that I have paid in during the last four years; but there is £1000 which I paid in five years ago, that I hold myself never to have drawn out, and therefore if I can find anybody who was answerable for the debts of the banking house such as they stood five years ago, I have a right to say that it is that specific sum which is still due to me, and not the £1000 that I paid in last week'" (g).

not to be taken backwards, and the balance struck at the head instead of the foot.

⁽g) Judgments in Clayton's Case, I Mer. 608, 609; Palmer's Case, I Mer. 623, 624; Sleech's Case, I Mer. 539. And see (for the law as to the appropriation of securities when there is a double bankruptcy), Ex parte Waring, 19 Ves. 345; Ex parte Gomez, In re Yglesias, L. R. 10.Ch. App. 639; and distinguish Vaughan v. Halliday, L. R. 9 Ch. App. 561; Ex parte Kelly & Co., In re Smith, Fleming, & Co., 11 Ch. Div. 306.

CHAPTER IX.

SPECIFIC PERFORMANCE.

By the common law every executory contract to sell Breach of conor transfer a thing is treated as a merely personal con- tract at common law a tract, and, if left unperformed by the party, no redress question of damages. can be had excepting in damages. The common law thus allows the party the election either to pay damages or to perform the contract at his sole pleasure. courts of equity have deemed such a course wholly In equity, inadequate for the purposes of justice, and they have be exactly not hesitated to interpose and require from the con-performed. science of the offending party a strict performance of what he cannot, without manifest fraud or wrong, refuse.

The ground of the jurisdiction in equity being the Inadequacy of inadequacy of the remedy at law, it follows as a general ground of principle, that where damages at law will give a party equity jurisdiction. the full compensation to which he is entitled, and will put him in a position as beneficial to him as if the agreement had been specifically performed, equity will not interfere (a), and such appears to be still the law. notwithstanding the Judicature Acts, 1873-75.

There are, however, certain cases where equity re- Cases in which fuses to interfere to compel specific performance, with- equity will not decree specific out taking into consideration the question whether performance adequate relief can be obtained at law or not.

of an agreement or contract.

The court will not decree specific performance of an (r.) An illegal

or immoral contract.

agreement to do an action immoral or contrary to the law. As expressed by Sir William Grant, "You cannot stir a step but through the illegal agreement, and it is impossible for the court to enforce it" (b).

(2.) An agreement without consideration. So again, a court of equity will not enforce specific performance of an agreement without consideration. In Jefferys v. Jefferys (c), a father, by voluntary settlement, having conveyed certain freeholds, and covenanted to surrender certain copyholds to trustees in trust for his daughters, afterwards devised the same freehold and copyhold estates to his widow. A suit was instituted by the daughters against the widow to have the trusts of the settlement carried out. The Lord Chancellor said, "The title of the plaintiffs to the freeholds is complete; and they may have a decree for carrying the settlement into effect so far as the freeholds are concerned. With respect to the COPYHOLDS, I have no doubt that the court will not execute a voluntary contract."

(3.) A contract which the court cannot enforce.
(a.) Where personal skill is required.

The incapacity of a court to compel the complete execution of a contract in certain cases, limits its jurisdiction to compel specific performance. This principle is most frequently illustrated in cases of agreements to do acts involving personal skill, knowledge, or inclination. Thus, in Lumley v. Wagner (d), a lady agreed in writing with a theatrical manager to sing at his theatre for a definite period. By a clause subsequently agreed to by her, she engaged not to use her talents at any other theatre or concert-room, without the written authorisation of the manager. The lady engaged with the manager of a rival theatre within the defined period. It was held, that though

 ⁽b) Thomson v. Thomson, 7 Ves. 470; Ewing v. Osbáldiston, 2 My. & Cr. 53.
 (c) Cr. & Ph. 141.

⁽d) 5 De G. & Sm. 485; 1 De G. M. & G. 604.

the court would restrain the lady from singing at any other theatre, it could not compel her to sing at the theatre of the plaintiff according to her agreement (e). (b.) Contract It is on the same principle that the court refuses good-will of a specific performance of an agreement for the sale of business without the prethe good-will of a business unconnected with the mises. business premises, by reason of the uncertainty of the subject-matter, and the consequent incapacity of the court to give specific directions as to what is to be done to transfer it (f). Again, it seems to be now settled (a) Contracts to build or that the court will not interfere in cases of contracts repair not ento build or repair. "There is no case of a specific forced, because they performance decreed of an agreement to build a house, are generally because if A. will not do it, B. may. A specific per- too uncertain. formance is only decreed where the party wants the thing in specie, and cannot have it any other way "(g). In the case of building contracts the plaintiff has an adequate, perhaps a better, remedy in damages (h). Another reason for the refusal of courts of equity to decree specific performance of agreements to build is, that such contracts are for the most part too uncertain to enable the court to carry them out (i). It seems. however, that where such an agreement is clear and definite in its nature, the court might without much difficulty entertain a suit for its performance (i). So again, the court will not enforce a contract which is (d.) Revocable in its nature revocable, for its interference in such a case would be idle, inasmuch as what it had done might be instantly undone by either of the parties.

⁽e) Martin v. Nutkin, 2 P. Wms. 266; Dietrichsen v. Cabburn, 2 Phil. 52.

⁽f) Baxter v. Conolly, I J. & W. 576; Darbey v. Whittaker, 4 Drew. 134, 139, 140.

⁽g) Errington v. Aynesly, 2 Bro. C. C. 343. (h) South Wales Railway Co. v. Wythes, 1 K. & J. 186; 5 De G. M. & G. 880.

⁽i) Mosely v. Virgin, 3 Ves. 184. (j) Mosely v. Virgin, 3 Ves. 184; Baumann v. James, L. R. 3 Ch. 508; Lucas v. Comerford, 1 Ves. 235.

It is on this principle that the court generally refuses to interfere in cases of agreements to enter into partnership, which do not specify the duration of the partnership,—that relation, unless otherwise provided, being dissoluble at the will of either party (k).

Where the specific performance of a contract will

(4.) Contract wanting in mutuality.

Statute of

Frauds no exception to this in appearance.

be decreed upon the application of one party, courts of equity will maintain the like suit at the instance of the other party, although the relief sought by him is merely in the nature of a compensation in damages or value; for in all such cases the court acts upon the ground that the remedy, if it exists at all, ought to be mutual and reciprocal, as well for the vendor as for the purchaser (l). It follows, therefore, that an infant cannot sustain a bill for specific performance, rule, excepting for a court of equity will not compel a specific performance as against him (m). An apparent but no real exception is that arising under the Statute of Frauds, where a plaintiff may obtain a decree for specific performance of a contract signed by the defendant although not signed by the plaintiff, who if sued on his part would not have been liable. But such "cases are supported, first because the Statute of Frauds (n) only requires the agreement to be signed by the party to be charged; and next, it is said that the plaintiff by the act of filing the bill has made the remedy mutual. Neither of these reasons applies to the case of an infant. The act of filing the bill by his 'next friend' cannot bind him " (n).

Division of

Having premised these general observations, it is

⁽k) Hercy v. Birch, 9 Ves. 357; Sturge v. Mid. Rail. Co., 6 W. R.

^{233. (}l) Adderley v. Dixon, 1 S. & S. 607. (m) Flight v. Bolland, 4 Russ. 301.

⁽n) 29 Car. II. c. 3.

⁽o) Flight v. Bolland, 4 Russ, 301.

proposed to treat the subject under two heads, with subject, acregard to-

cording as the property is realty or is personalty.

I. Contracts respecting chattels personal.

II. Contracts respecting land.

In making this distinction, however, it is necessary No essential to remember that courts of equity decree the specific difference between realty performance of contracts, not upon any distinction and personbetween realty and personalty, but because damages at Contracts as law may not in the particular case afford a complete to realty enforced, beremedy. Thus a court of equity decrees performance cause remedy at law is inof a contract for land, not because of the real nature adequate. of the land, but because damages at law, which must be calculated upon the general money value of land. may not be a complete remedy to the purchaser, to Secus-conwhom the land may have a peculiar and special value. ing person-So a court of equity will not generally decree perform-alty, because the legal ance of a contract for the sale of stock or goods, not remedy as a because of their personal value, but because damages rule is adequate. at law, calculated upon the market price of the stock or goods, are as complete a remedy to the purchaser as the delivery of the stock or goods contracted for; inasmuch as with the damages he may purchase the same quantity of the like stock or goods (p).

I. Contracts respecting personal chattels.

The general rule now is, not to entertain jurisdiction chattels. Not generally in equity for a specific performance of agreements re-enforced. specting goods, chattels, stock, choses in action, and other things of a merely personal nature (q). But this rule is qualified and subject to certain exceptions; or rather the rule is limited to cases where a compensa-

I. Contracts respecting personal

⁽p) Adderley v. Dixon, I S. & S. 610.

⁽q) Pooley v. Budd, 14 Beav. 34.

tion in damages furnishes a complete and satisfactory remedy.

Exceptions to general rule— (i.) Contract respecting shares in a railway company. Thus, in Duncuft v. Albrecht (r), the Vice-Chancellor, in decreeing specific performance of an agreement for the sale of a certain number of shares in a railway company, said—"Now, I agree that it has long since been decided that you cannot have a bill for the specific performance of an agreement to transfer a certain quantity of stock. But, in my opinion, there is not any sort of analogy between a quantity of three per cents., or any other stock of that description (which is always to be had by any person who chooses to apply for it in the market), and a certain number of railway shares of a particular description, which railway shares are limited in number, and which, as has been observed, are not always to be had in the market" (s).

In Buxton v. Lister (t), Lord Hardwicke puts the case of a ship-carpenter purchasing timber which was peculiarly convenient to him, by reason of its vicinity, and also the case of an owner of land covered with timber, contracting to sell his timber, in order to clear his land, and assumes that as, in both these cases, damages would not, by reason of the special circumstances, be a complete remedy, equity would decree a specific performance (u).

(2.) Sale of assigned debts under a bankruptcy. In Adderley v. Dixon (v), the plaintiffs having purchased and taken assignments of certain debts which had been proved under two commissions of bank-

⁽v) 12 Sim. 199.

⁽s) Doloret v. Rothschild, I Sim. & Stu. 598; Shaw v. Fisher, 2 De G. & Sm. 11; Odessa Tramways v. Mendel, 8 Ch. Div. 235.

⁽t) 3 Atk. 385.

⁽u) Adderley v. Dixon, 1 Sim. & Stu. 607.

⁽v) I Sim. & Stu. 607.

ruptcy, agreed to sell them to the defendant for 2s. 6d. in the pound, a specific performance of the agreement at the suit of the vendor was enforced, and the learned Vice-Chancellor said—"The present case, being a contract for the sale of the uncertain dividends which may become payable from the estates of the two bankrupts, it appears to me that a court of equity will decree specific performance, because damages at law cannot accurately represent the value of the future dividends; and to compel this purchaser to take such damages would be to compel him to sell those dividends at a conjectural price. It is true, that the present bill is not filed by the purchaser, but by the vendor, who seeks not the uncertain dividends but the certain sum to be paid for them. It has, however, been settled by repeated decisions that the remedy in equity must be mutual, and that where a bill will lie for the purchaser it will also lie for the vendor" (w).

Courts of equity will compel the specific delivery (3.) Contracts "of articles of unusual beauty, rarity, and distinction, beautiful so that damages would not be an adequate compensa-articles. tion for non-performance" (x). In Dowling v. Betjemann (y), it was decided that the court has jurisdiction to order the delivery up to an artist of a picture painted by himself, as having a special value, the legal remedy being inadequate. But where, by the terms of the agreement and the frame of the pleadings, the plaintiff, seeking restitution of a picture, had in effect put a fixed price upon it, it was held that damages would be an adequate remedy, and that there was no jurisdiction in a court of equity to interfere.

It has been repeatedly decided, that it is within the (4.) Delivery

⁽w) Wright v. Bell, 5 Price, 325; Kenney v. Wexham, 6 Mad. 355; Cogent v. Gibson, 33 Beav. 557.
(x) Falcke v. Gray, 4 Drew. 658.
(y) 2 J. & H. 544.

up of heirlooms and other chattels of peculiar value. jurisdiction of a court of equity to compel the specific delivery up of heirlooms or chattels of peculiar value to the owner, and on the same grounds as in cases of agreement, that the specific thing is the object, and damages will not afford an adequate compensation (z). "Thus, the Pusey Horn, the patera of the Duke of Somerset, were things of such a character as a jury might (possibly) estimate by their weight; and this would obviously be a very inadequate and unsatisfactory measure of damages. In all cases, therefore, where the object of the suit is not open to compensation by damages, it would be strange if the law of this country did not afford any remedy; and great would be the injustice, if an individual cannot have his property without being liable to the estimate of people who cannot value it as he does" (a).

(5.) Specific performance where a fiduciary relation exists. The cases which have been referred to are not the only class of cases in which the court will entertain a suit for delivery up of specific chattels. For, where a fiduciary relation subsists between the parties, whether it be that of an agent or a trustee or a broker, or whether the subject-matter be stock or cargoes, or chattels of whatever description, the court will interfere to prevent a sale, either by the party intrusted with the goods, or by a person claiming under him, through an alleged abuse of the power, and will compel a specific delivery up of the articles (b).

Common law powers as to specific deThe Courts of Common Law have now, under the Common Law Procedure Act of 1854 (c), after judg-

⁽z) Somerset v. Cookson, I L. C. 891; Pusey v. Pusey, I Vern. 273. (a) Fells v. Read, 3 Ves. 70; Macclesfield v. Davis, 3 V. & B. 16; Reece v. Trye, I De G. & Sm. 273; Beresford v. Driver, 14 Beav. 387; 16 Beav. 134.

⁽b) Wood v. Roweliffe, 3 Hare, 304; 2 Ph. 383; Pollard v. Clayton,
1 K. & J. 462; Edwards v. Clay, 28 Beav. 145.
(c) 17 & 18 Vict. c. 125, s. 78.

ment in an action of detinue, the same jurisdiction livery, under to compel the return of a chattel as the Court of c. 125; and Chancery, but the latter court may enforce its decrees Judicature by attachment, whilst the Courts of Common Law can Acts, 1873-75. only enforce restitution by distringas (d). Under the Judicature Acts, 1873-75, the power of Courts of Law is now co-extensive in this respect with that of Courts of Equity. And under the 100th section of the Companies Act, 1862, relief that is substantially specific performance may be obtained on summons, without action, when the company is in liquidation (e).

II. Contracts respecting land.

II. Contracts respecting

It has been already suggested that courts of equity Generally are in the habit of interposing to grant relief in cases because of contracts respecting real property, to a far greater $\frac{\text{damages at}}{\text{law no}}$ extent than in cases of contracts respecting personal remedy. property; not, indeed, upon the ground of any distinction founded upon the mere nature of the property, as real or as personal, but at the same time not wholly excluding the consideration of such a distinction. regard to contracts respecting personal property, if the contract is not specifically performed, the purchaser may in general provide himself with other goods of a like description and quality, with the damages given him at law, and thus completely obtain his object. But in contracts respecting a specific messuage or parcel of land, the same considerations do not in general apply. The locality, character, vicinage, soil, easements, or accommodations of the land generally, may give it a peculiar and special value in the eyes of the purchaser, so that it cannot be replaced by other land of the same precise value, but not having the same precise local conveniencies or accommodations; and, therefore, a compensation in damages would not

⁽d) Day's Com. Law Proc. Acts, 249.

⁽e) In re Oakwell Collieries Co., W. N. 1879, p. 65.

be adequate relief (f). It would not attain the object desired, and it would generally frustrate the plans of the purchaser. And hence it is that the jurisdiction of courts of equity to decree specific performance is, in cases of contracts respecting lands, universally maintained, whereas in cases respecting chattels it is limited to special circumstances. And the jurisdiction extends even to lands that are out of the jurisdiction, if the contract's parties are within it (q).

Cases in which even the Statute of Frauds is broken in upon. (a.) If unconscientious to rely on it,generally.

The Statute of Frauds says, that no action or suit shall be maintained on an agreement relating to lands which is not in writing, signed by the party to be charged with it; and yet the court is in the daily habit of relieving, where the party seeking relief has been put into a situation which makes it generally against conscience in the other party to insist on the want of writing so signed as a bar to the relief (h). It is proposed to inquire, under what other more particular circumstances courts of equity hold that, notwithstanding the express language of the statute, a case may be taken out of its operation.

(b.) Where the agreement is confessed by the defendant's answer.

In the first place, then, courts of equity will enforce a specific performance of a contract within the statute, not in writing, where it is fully set forth in the bill. and is confessed by the answer of the defendant (i). The reason given for this decision is, that the statute is designed to guard against fraud and perjury; and in such a case there can be no danger of that sort. The case, then, is entirely taken out of the mischief intended to be guarded against by the statute. Perhaps another reason might fairly be added, and that is

⁽f) Adderley v. Dixon, I Sim. & Stu. 607.

⁽g) In re Longdendale Cotton Spinning Co., 8 Ch. Div. 150; Penn v.

Lord Baltimore, 2 L. C. 837.

(h) Bond v. Hopkins, 1 S. & L. 433.

(i) Att.-Gen. v. Sitwell, 1 You. & Col. Exch. Ca. 559; Gunter v. Halsey, Amb. 586.

that the agreement, although originally by parol, is now in part evidenced by writing under the signature of the party, which is a complete compliance with the terms of the statute. If such an agreement were originally by parol, but were afterwards reduced into writing by the parties, no one would doubt its obligatory force. Indeed, if the defendant does not insist on the defence, he may fairly be deemed to waive it: and the rule is, Quisque renuntiare potest juri pro se introducto (j). It has been settled, however, that Unless the although the defendant by his answer confesses the parol defendant, notwithstandagreement, he may insist by way of defence upon ing, insists upon the the protection of the statute, and such a defence is defence. good(k).

Secondly, courts of equity will enforce a specific (c.) Where performance of a contract within the statute where the the contract is partly perparol agreement has been partly carried into execution formed by the by the party praying relief (l). The distinct ground aid. upon which courts of equity interfere in cases of this sort is, that otherwise one party would be able to practise a fraud upon the other; and it could never be the intention of the statute to enable any party to commit a fraud with impunity. Indeed, fraud in all cases constitutes an answer to the most solemn acts and conveyances, and the objects of the statute are promoted instead of being obstructed by a jurisdiction for discovery and relief. And where one party has executed his part of the agreement in the confidence that the other party would do the same, it is obvious that if the latter should refuse, it would be a fraud upon the former to suffer this refusal to work to his prejudice (m).

⁽j) I Fonbl. Eq. B. I. ch. 3, s. 8, note d.
(k) Cooth v. Jackson, 9 Ves. 37; Blagden v. Bradbear, 12 Ves. 466,
471; Skinner v. M'Douall, 2 De G. & Sm. 265.
(l) Caton v. Caton, L. R. I Ch. 137.

⁽m) Nicol v. Tackaberry, 10 Gr. 109; Hussey v. Horn Payne, 4 App. Ca. 311.

Part-performance,—what is? In order to withdraw a contract on the ground of part-performance from the operation of the statute, several circumstances must concur.

- (r.) Acts of part-performance must be referable alone to the agreement alleged.
- (1.) The acts of part-performance must be such as are not only referable to an agreement such as that alleged, but such as are referable to no other title. For if they are acts which might have been done with other views, they will not take the case out of the statute, since they cannot properly be said to be done by way of part-performance of the agreement (n).
- (2.) Introductory or ancillary acts are not acts of part-performance.
- (2.) Also, acts merely introductory or ancillary to an agreement are not considered as part-performance thereof, although they should be attended with expense. Therefore, delivering an abstract of title, giving directions for conveyances, going to view the estate, fixing upon an appraiser to value stock, making valuations, admeasuring the lands, registering conveyances, and acts of the like nature, are not sufficient to take a case out of the statute (o). They are all preliminary proceedings, and for which damages for loss of time and labour would be an adequate compensation; and besides, they are of an equivocal character, and capable of a double interpretation; whereas acts to be deemed a part-performance should be so clear, certain, and definite in their object and design, as to refer exclusively to a complete and perfect agreement, of which they are a part-execution.

Mere possession of the land not an act of partperformance, if referable otherwise than to the agreement Consequently, the mere possession of the land contracted for will not be deemed a part-performance if it be wholly independent of the contract; therefore, where a tenant in possession sued for the specific performance of an alleged agreement for a lease, and set

⁽n) Gunter v. Halsey, Amb. 586; Lacon v. Mertins, 3 Atk. 4.
(o) Hawkins v. Holmes, 1 P. Wms. 770; Pembroke v. Thorpe, 3
Swanst. 437; Whitchurch v. Beris, 2 Bro. C. C. 559, 566.

up his possession as an act of part-performance of the agreement, it was held not to be such, because it was referable otherwise than to the agreement, i.e., to his character as tenant (p). So again, where a tenant from year to year continues in possession, and lays out such moneys on the farm as are usual in the ordinary course of husbandry, this is no part-performance of an agreement for a lease (q). But if the possession be delivered. and delivered and obtained solely under the contract; or if, in case of tenancy, the nature of the holding be different from the original tenancy, as by the payment of a higher rent, or by other unequivocal circumstances, referable solely and exclusively to the contract, there the possession may take the case out of the statute. Especially will it be held to do so where the party let into possession has expended money in building and repairs or other improvements; for under such circumstances, if the parol contract were to be deemed a nullity, the expenditure would not only operate to his prejudice, but be the direct result of the fraud practised upon him; and besides, he would be liable to be treated as a trespasser (r).

(3.) The agreement which the acts of part-perform- (3.) The agreeance allow to be set up by parol evidence must be of originally have such a nature that the court would have had jurisdic-been cognisable in a tion in respect of it, in case it had been in writing. court of equity, inde-Where the court has jurisdiction in the original subject-pendently of matter, viz., the contract, the want of writing will not part-performdeprive the court of it where there is part-performance. ance. But the want of writing cannot itself be made the ground of jurisdiction; for then all parol contracts which the Statute of Frauds requires to be in writing might be enforced in equity when there was a part-

⁽p) Wills v. Stradling, 3 Ves. 378; Morphett v. Jones, 1 Swanst. 181.
(q) Brennan v. Bolton, 2 Dr. & War. 349.
(r) Lester v. Foxeroft, 1 L. C. 828; Aylesford's Case, 2 Str. 783; Mundy v. Jolliffe, 5 My. & Cr. 167; Gregory v. Mighell, 18 Ves. 328; Pain v. Coombs, 1 De G. & Jo. 34, 46.

performance (s). And where the possession taken is not under a contract, but adverse, the circumstance that there is no legal remedy does not suffice to give the court jurisdiction (t).

(4.) The acts done must not be capable of being undone, therefore payment of part or whole of purchasemoney is not an act of partperformance, because repayment will put the parties into the same position as before.

(4.) Payment of a part or even of the whole of the purchase-money is not an act of part-performance so as to take a contract out of the Statute of Frauds (u); "for it may be repaid, and then the parties will be just as they were before, especially if repaid with interest. It does not put a man who has parted with his money into the situation of a man against whom an action may be brought; for in the case of Foxcroft v. Lester, which first led the way, if the party could not have produced in evidence the parol agreement, he might have been liable in damages to an immense extent." Another reason alleged for the rule that " part-payment does not take the case out of the statute 29 Car. II., c. 3, is, that the statute has said (v), that in another case, viz., with respect to goods, it shall operate as a partperformance. And the courts have therefore considered this as excluding agreements for lands, because it is to be inferred that when the legislature said it should bind in the case of goods, and were silent as to the case of lands, they meant that it should not bind in the case of lands." (w).

sec. 17, provides for partpayment as to goods. Expressio unius, exclusio alterius.

> (5.) Marriage alone is not a part-performance of a parol agreement in relation to it; for to hold this would be to overrule the Statute of Frauds, which enacts that every agreement in consideration of marriage, in order to be binding, must be in writing (x). But a parol contract may be taken out of the statute by acts of

(5.) Marriage is not in itself part-performance, although not usually capable of being undone; but acts of part-performance independ-

⁽s) Fry on Spec. Performance, 179; Kirk v. Bromley Union, 2 Phil. 940.

⁽t) East India Co. v. Veerasawmy Moodelly, 7 Moo. P. C. C. 482. (u) Hughes v. Morris, 2 De G. M. & G. 349. (v) Sec. 17. (w) Clinan v. Cooke, I S. & L. 41; Seagood v. Meale, Prec. in Ch.

⁵⁶⁰ (x) Warden v. Jones, 2 De G. & Jo 76; Caton v. Caton, I L. R. Ch. 137; L. R. 2 Ho. of Lds. 127.

part-performance independently of the marriage. Thus, ently of the in Surcombe v. Pinniger (y), a father, previous to the marriage are marriage of his daughter, told her intended husband formance. that he meant to give certain leasehold property to them on their marriage. After the marriage he gave up possession of the property to the husband, to whom he directed the tenants to pay the rents, and handed to the husband the title-deeds. The husband also expended money upon the property. It was held that there had been sufficient part-performance of the parol contract to take the case out of the Statute of Frauds. "In this case," said Turner, L. J., "there is a part-performance by the delivering up of possession to the husband, —a fact which has always been held to change the situations and rights of the parties,—and there has been considerable expenditure by him on the property. There is, therefore, here what was wanting in Lassence v. Tierney (z)—acts of part-performance besides the marriage" (a).

It would seem, also, that if there be "a written A post-nuptial agreement after marriage, in pursuance of a parol ment in puragreement before marriage, this takes the case out of suance of an ante-nuptial the statute" (b); and the reason is this, that the object parol agreeof the 4th sec. of the Statute of Frauds was not to mentenforced. alter principles of law, but modes of evidence. Its object was to prevent the mischief arising from resorting to oral evidence to prove the existence of the terms of an alleged verbal agreement in certain specified cases, and, amongst the rest, an agreement made in consideration of marriage. It is obvious that there can be no ground to apprehend any such mischief

⁽y) 3 De G. M. & G. 571; Ungley v. Ungley, L. R. 4 Ch. Div. 73; 5 Ch. Div. 887.

⁽²⁾ I Mac. & G. 551. (a) Warden v. Jones, 2 De G. & Jo. 84. (b) Turner, L. J., in Surcombe v. Pinniger, 3 De G. M. & G. 571; Dundas v. Dutens, I Ves. 196; Barkworth v. Young, 26 L. J. Ch. 157; Peach on Marr. Sett. 81; but see Lord Cranworth's remarks in Warden v. Jones, 2 De G. & Jo. 85; also, Trowell v. Shenton, L. R. 8 Ch. Div. 318.

where you have a writing signed after marriage by the party to be charged, and referring clearly to the terms of an ante-nuptial agreement. It is therefore sufficient if there be a memorandum clearly containing the terms of the agreement before the action or suit arises (c).

A representation for the purpose of influencing another, which will be enforced. Where on marriage a third party makes a representation, on the faith riage takes

And it may be further usefully mentioned here, with regard not only to parol marriage contracts, but to other parol contracts generally, that it is a very old has that effect, head of equity, that "a representation made by one party, although by parol, for the purpose of influencing the conduct of the other party, and acted on by him, will be sufficient, although never subsequently evidenced by writing, to entitle him to the assistance of of which mar- this court, for the purpose of realising such representation" (d); and it is a leading principle, repeatedly place, he is tion (a), and it is bound to make adopted in equity, that where, upon the marriage of two persons, a third party makes a representation upon the faith of which the marriage takes place, he shall be bound to make his representation good (e). upon this principle that an injunction was granted to restrain the enforcement of a demand, the party seeking to enforce it having, while a marriage treaty was pending, falsely represented to the father of the lady that there was no such demand existing. "If," said Lord Thurlow, "any man, upon a treaty for any contract, will make a false representation, by means of which he puts the person bargaining under a mistake upon the terms of the bargain, it is a fraud—it misleads the parties contracting on the subject of the contract. . . . The principle upon which all the cases upon this

⁽c) Bailey v. Sweeting, 30 L. J. C. P. 150; Smith v. Hudson, 6 N. R. 106.

⁽d) Hammersley v. De Biel, 12 Cl. & Fin. 62, 78. (e) Bold v. Hutchinson, 20 Beav. 256; 5 De G. M. & G. 558; Walford v. Gray, 13 W. R. 335; Affd. lb. 761; Goldicutt v. Townsend, 28 Beav. 445; Prole v. Soady, 2 Giff. 1; and especially Barkworth v. Young, 26 L. J. Ch. 157.

subject have been decided is, that faith in such contracts is so essential to the happiness both of the parents and of the children, that whoever treats them fraudulently on such an occasion shall not only not gain, but shall even lose by it " (f).

But in these cases it is necessary that the plaintiff Promise by should base his action upon the ground of misrepre-husband to sentation; for otherwise, if he bases it upon the ground by will not enforced, of contract, he must make out a written contract or where marelse sufficient part-performance. Thus, in Caton v. riage is the consideration, Caton (g), previously to marriage, the intended hus-and the promise is not in band and wife agreed in writing (but which writing writing signed. was never signed by the husband), that the husband should have the wife's property for his life, paying her £80 a year pin-money, and that she should have it after his death; and they gave instructions for a settlement upon that footing. The settlement was accordingly prepared, when they agreed that they would have no settlement, the husband promising, as the wife alleged, that he would make a will giving her all his property. The husband had previously to the marriage prepared a will, and immediately after the marriage the husband and wife went into the vestry, and he there executed the will. After his death, a subsequent and different will was found. It was held by the Lord Chancellor and the House of Lords (reversing the decision of Stuart, V.-C.) that the wife was not entitled to specific performance of the agreement by the husband to leave her his property by will.

And now to resume the cases in which the Statute (d.) Where of Frauds will on various grounds be broken in upon—agreement concerning A contract regarding lands will be taken out of the land is not put into writoperation of the statute, where the agreement is in- ing by fraud

(q) L. R. 1 Ch. 137; L. R. 2 Ho. of Lds. 127.

⁽f) Neville v. Wilkinson, 1 Bro. C. C. 543; Montefiori v. Montefiori, 1 Wm. Bl. 363.

of one of the parties.

tended to be put into writing according to the statute, but that is prevented from being done by the fraud of one of the parties. In such a case courts of equity have said that the agreement shall be specifically executed, for otherwise the statute, designed to suppress fraud, would be the greatest protection to it. if an agreement in writing should be drawn up, and another should be fraudulently and secretly brought in, and executed in lieu of the former, in this and the like cases equity will relieve. So if a man should treat for a loan of money on mortgage, and the conveyance is to be by an absolute deed of the mortgagor and a defeasance by the mortgagee, and, after the absolute deed is executed, the mortgagee fraudulently refuses to execute the defeasance, equity will decree a specific performance (h).

Representation of a mere intention, or a promise upon honour, not enforced.

Also, where the representation is not of an existing fact, but of a mere intention, or where a promisor will not bind himself by a contract, but gives the other party to understand that he must rely upon his honour for the fulfilment of his promise, in these cases, of course, the court will not enforce the performance of the representation or promise (i).

Grounds of defence to a suit for specific performance, It is now proposed to consider the principal defences that may be set up to a suit for specific performance, independently of the Statute of Frauds.

(1.) Misrepresentation by plaintiff having reference to the contract.

A misrepresentation, having relation to the contract, made by one of the parties to the other, is a ground for refusing the interference of the court at the instance of the party who has made the misrepresentation, and may, in certain cases, be a ground for its active inter-

⁽h) Maxwell v. Montacute, Prec. Ch. 526; Joynes v. Statham, 3 Atk. 389; Lincoln v. Wright, 4 De G. & Jo. 16.

⁽i) Maunsell v. White, i Jo. & L. 539; 4 H. L. Cas. 1039; Jorden v. Money, 15 Beav. 372; 2 De G. M. & G. 318; 5 Ho. of Lds. Cas. 185.

ference in setting aside the contract, at the instance of the party deceived (i).

Mistake is also a ground of defence. The principle (2.) Mistake upon which courts of equity proceed in those cases specific perwhere mistake is the ground of defence is this—that formance a hardship. there must be an agreement binding at law; but that is not enough to entitle the plaintiff to more than his legal remedy,—the contract must be more than merely legal. It must not be hard or unconscionable: it must be free from fraud, from surprise, and from mistake; for where there is a mistake, there is not that consent which is essential to a contract in equity: non videntur qui errant consentire (k).

The settled rule of the court is to admit parol evi- Parol evidence dence, not merely for the purpose of proving a mistake of mistake is admitted notby way not only of defence to a suit for specific perform-withstanding the statute. ance, but for the purpose of correcting the mistake. This admission of such evidence is not a breach of the Statute of Frauds; because it should be remembered that the statute says, "No person shall be charged with the execution of an agreement who has not, either by himself or his agent, signed a written agreement;" but the statute does not say that if a written agree- The statute ment is signed, the same exception shall not hold to it written agreethat did before the statute. Now, before the statute, ment shall bind, but that if a bill had been brought for specific performance, and an unwritten it had appeared that the agreement had been prepared shall not bind. contrary to the intent of the defendant, he might have said, "That is not the agreement meant to have been signed." Such a case is left as it was before the statute: it does not say that a written agreement shall bind, but that an unwritten agreement shall not bind (1).

(1) Clinan v. Cooke, I Sch. & Lef. 39.

⁽j) Edwards v. M'Leay, Coop. 308; Baskcomb v. Beckwith, L. S. 8 Eq. 100; Talbot v. Hamilton, 4 Gr. 200; Fry on Spec. Perf. 191.
(k) Fry on Spec. Perf. 212. And see Jones v. Clifford, L. R. 3 Ch.

(3.) Error of defendant, although attributable to defendant's own negligence.

It follows from what has been stated, that where the defendant has been led into any error or mistake, the plaintiff cannot enforce the contract. one case (m), a professional man was relieved at his own suit from an error in a deed of his own drawing. the same principle, in Malins v. Freeman (n), where an estate was purchased at an auction, under a mistake as to the lot put up for sale, and the mistake arose wholly through the carelessness of the defendant, it was held that specific performance would not be enforced. Master of the Rolls said—"The defendant submits that he entered into it by error and in mistake, and that he ought not to be compelled specifically to perform it. Certainly, if the defendant did fall into any mistake, it cannot be ascribed to the conduct of the plaintiff. The plaintiff and his agents in no respect contributed to it, and if the defendant, by his carelessness, has caused any injury or loss to the plaintiff, he is accountable for it.

"But the defendant may be answerable for damages at law, without being liable to a specific performance In cases of specific performance, the in this court. court exercises a discretion, and knowing that a party may have such compensation as a jury will award him in the shape of damages for the breach of contract, will not, in all cases, decree a specific performance; as in cases of intoxication, although the party may not have been drawn in to drink by the plaintiff, yet, if the agreement was made in a state of intoxication, the court will not decree a specific performance. question here is not, as it has been put, whether the alleged mistake, if true, is one in respect of which the court will relieve, for the court is not here called upon to relieve the defendant from his legal liability, but

⁽m) Ball v. Storie, I S. & S. 210.

⁽n) 2 Keen, 25, 34; and distinguish Jefferys v. Fairs, L. R. 4 Ch. Div. 448.

whether, if the mistake be proved, the court will enforce a specific performance, or leave the defendant to his legal liability. And I think that if such a mistake as is here alleged to have happened be made out, a Contract not specific performance ought not to be decreed. . . . I where deam of opinion, that the defendant never did intend to fendant did bid for this estate. He was hurried and inconsiderate, purchase or and when his error was pointed out to him, he was not to sell. so prompt as he ought to have been in declaring it. It is probable that, by his conduct, he occasioned some loss to the plaintiff; for that he is answerable, if the contract was valid, and will be left so, notwithstanding the decision to be now made. But I think that he never meant to enter into this contract, and that it would not be equitable to compel him to perform it, whatever may be the responsibility to which he is left liable at law" (o).

We may now proceed to consider the effect of a Effect of mistake, or parol variation, set up by the defendant mistake, where as a ground for refusing the specific performance of a variation is set up as a written agreement alleged by the plaintiff (p).

defence.

(a.) Where the parol variation set up by the defend- (a.) Where ant shows that, after the parties to the contract had the error arose in the reducmutually agreed with each other, an error occurred tion of the in the reduction of the agreement into writing, and it writing, speciappears that the written agreement, varied according ance decreed to the defendant's contention, represents the true con-with parol variation set tract between the parties, the court will, it seems, where up by the dethere has been no fraud, enforce specific performance fendant. of the contract so varied. Thus, where a bill was brought for the specific performance of an agreement to grant a lease at a rent of £9 per annum, and the defendant insisted that it ought to have been a term of the agreement that the plaintiff should pay all taxes,

⁽o) Manser v. Back, 6 Hare, 443; Alvanley v. Kinnaird, 2 Mac. & G. 7; Baxendale v. Seale, 19 Beav. 601; Wood v. Scarth, 2 K. & J. 33.
(p) See generally Fry on Spec. Perf. 216-236.

Lord Hardwicke granted specific performance, and directed that the terms of the verbal agreement should be carried out by the covenants to be inserted in the lease (q).

Plaintiff cannot obtain specific performance with parol variation of written agreement.

And the distinction is now apparently well established between the case of a plaintiff seeking, and a defendant resisting, specific performance. The rule is, that though a defendant, resisting specific performance, may go into parol evidence to show that, by fraud, accident, or mistake, the written agreement does not express the real terms, a plaintiff, with the exception hereafter noted, cannot do so for the purpose of obtaining specific performance with a variance.

Exception—unless the parol variation be in favour of the defendant,

Where, however, a plaintiff alleges a parol variation in favour of the defendant, and offers to perform the agreement with the variation, the court will enforce specific performance, though the defendant plead the statute. Thus, where the defendant agreed in writing to grant the plaintiff a lease at a specified rent and for a specified term, and the plaintiff filed a bill for specific performance, stating the above agreement, and that it was further agreed that he, the plaintiff, should pay a premium of £200, which, by his claim, he offered to do: the defendant, acknowledging that the terms were such as the plaintiff represented them, insisted that, as the written agreement did not provide for those terms, the statute was a good defence. It was held. however, that this additional term did not render the statute a good defence, and Knight Bruce, L. J., said-"Our opinion is, that when persons sign a written agreement upon a subject obnoxious, or not obnoxious. to the statute that has been so particularly referred to (r), and there has been no circumvention, no fraud. nor (in the sense in which the term 'mistake' must

⁽q) Joynes v. Statham, 3 Atk. 388.

be considered as used for the purpose) mistake, the written agreement binds at law and in equity, according to its terms, although verbally a provision was agreed to, which has not been inserted in the document; subject to this, that either of the parties sued The defendant in equity upon it may perhaps be entitled, in general, may ask the to ask the court to be neutral, unless the plaintiff will neutral, unless the plaintiff consent to the performance of the omitted term" (s) will perform In such cases as these, the court interferes for the pur-term. pose of reforming the contract, and not rescinding it. "No doubt," says Lord Hardwicke (t), "but this court has jurisdiction to relieve in respect of a plain mistake in contracts in writing, as well as against frauds in contracts; so that, if reduced into writing contrary to intent of the parties, on proper proof, that would be rectified "

The case of Townshend v. Stangroom (u), affords a Townshend v. strong illustration of the above-mentioned distinction as to difference between the rights of a plaintiff and of a defendant between plaintiff seeking setting up a parol variation to a written contract, and defendant There a lessor filed a bill for the specific performance fic performof a written agreement for a lease, with a variation as ance. to the quantity of land to be included in the lease, supported by parol evidence. The lessee filed a crossbill for specific performance of the written agreement without the parol variation. Lord Eldon dismissed both bills; the first, because the parol evidence was not admissible on behalf of the lessor seeking specific performance: the second, because it was admissible when adduced by such lessor, as defendant, for the purpose of showing that by mistake or surprise the written agreement did not contain the terms intended to be introduced into it (v).

⁽s) Martin v. Pycroft, 2 De G. M. & G. 785; Parker v. Taswell, 2 De G. & Jo. 559.

⁽t) Henkle v. Roy. Ex. Assoc. Co., 1 Ves. Sr. 317. (u) 6 Ves. 328; Smith v. Wheatcroft, 9 Ch. Div. 223. (v) Woollam v. Hearn, 2 L. C. 468.

Secus-where terms of agreement.

But where the mistake or parol variation set up by standing as to the defendant does not show a mere mistake in the reduction of the contract into writing, but that one party understood one thing, and the other another, there is no contract at all in such a case, for want of the assensus ad idem, and the plaintiff's bill is consequently dismissed (w).

(b.) Where the parol variation is subsequent to the contract.

(b.) Where the parol variation, which the plaintiff or defendant seeks to set up is a subsequent agreement in parol between the parties to a written agreement, the case in nowise comes within the doctrine of mistake, and the parol variation is inadmissible under the Statute of Frauds, except in cases where the refusal to perform it might amount to fraud (x); or unless there have been such acts of part-performance as would justify a decree in the case of an original substantive agreement (y).

(4.) Misdescription,is substantial or not.

Another common ground of defence to an action for according as it specific performance is, that, by a misdescription of the property, the defendant has purchased what he never intended to purchase. Under this defence, two classes of cases arise :-

- I. Cases where the misdescription is of a substantial character, and will not, in justice, admit of compensation.
- 2. Cases where the misdescription is of such a character as fairly to admit of compensation.

Where the misdescription is of a

In cases of substantial misdescription. ciple governing this class of cases is thus summed up

⁽w) Legal v. Miller, 2 Ves. Sr. 299.
(x) See observations of Sir W. Grant in Price v. Dyer, 17 Ves. 364. (y) Legal v. Miller, 2 Ves. Sr. 299; Van v. Corpe, 3 My. & K. 269, 277.

by Lord Eldon (z): -- "The court is, from time to time, substantial approaching nearer to the doctrine that a purchaser character, it is a good deshall have that which he contracted for, or not be fence. compelled to take at all that which he did not mean to have."

The question whether a misdescription is a sub-Whether misstantial one or not, is one concerning which no general description is rule can be laid down. Each case will be decided on a matter of evidence. its own particular facts.

(A.) Cases where vendor seeks specific performance. (A.) Purchaser Where property sold as copyhold turned out to be not compelled partly freehold, it was held that the vendor could not (a.) Freehold instead of compel specific performance, notwithstanding a special copyhold. condition providing that errors in the description should not invalidate the sale. It was insisted for the vendor that freehold was better than copyhold, but the Master of the Rolls said:--" It is impossible to enter into a consideration of the different motives which may induce a person to prefer property of one tenure to another. The motives and fancies of mankind are infinite, and it is unnecessary for a man who has contracted to purchase one thing to explain why he refuses to accept another "(a).

So a purchaser is not compelled to take an under-(b.) Under-lease instead of an original lease (b). So again where of original a wharf and jetty were contracted to be sold, and it lease. turned out that the jetty was liable to be removed by the Corporation of London, specific performance was refused (c). In the case of the sale of a residence and four acres of land, it having turned out that there was

⁽z) Knatchbull v. Grueber, 3 Mer. 146; and see Jaques v. Millar, L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 153.

⁽a) Ayles v. Cox, 16 Beav. 23; Drewe v. Corp, 9 Ves. 368; Wright v. Howard, 1 S. & S. 190; Hart v. Swaine, L. R. 7 Ch. Div. 42.
(b) Madeley v. Booth, 2 De G. & Sm. 718.
(c) Peers v. Lambert, 7 Beav. 546.

no title to a slip of ground of about a quarter of an acre between the house and the highroad, the Master of the Rolls said: -- "Under ordinary circumstances, this would be a case for compensation; but here is a house, with a long strip of land between it and the road, to which there is no title, so that the people in passing can look in at the window. This is not a case for compensation" (d).

Where the difference is slight, and a proper subject for compensation, it will be enforced with as where acreage is deficient.

Where, however, in the eye of the court the difference is not material, and is such that it is a proper subject for compensation, the court will enforce the contract, at the suit of the vendor, compelling him to make compensation to the purchaser. For example, where compensation, there was an objection to the title of six acres out of a large estate, and these did not appear material to the enjoyment of the rest (e), specific performance was nevertheless decreed. So again, where fourteen acres were sold as water-meadow, and twelve only answered that description, it was held a fit subject for compensation (f). And, nota bene, that after conveyance of the estate, there can be no claim made for compensation (g).

No compensation where fraud.

mated.

The principle of granting compensation in lieu of there has been rescinding the contract, in case of any error or misstatement, will never be applied where there has been Nor where the fraud or misrepresentation (h). It is also a necessary compensation, cannot be esti. principle that, where there are no data from which the amount of compensation can be ascertained, the court cannot enforce the contract with compensation.

⁽d) Perkins v. Ede, 16 Beav. 193; Knatchbull v. Grueber, 3 Mer. 124. (e) M'Queen v. Farquhar, 11 Ves. 467; Shackleton v. Sutcliffe, 1 De G. & Sm. 609.

⁽f) Scott v. Hanson, I R. & My. 128. (g) Manson v. Thacker, 7 Ch. Div. 620; Besley v. Besley, 9 Ch. Div. 103. But see In re Turner and Skelton, W. N. 151.

⁽h) Clermont v. Tasburgh, 1 J. & W. 120; Price v. Macaulay, 2 De G. M. & G. 339, 344. But see Powell v. Elliott, L. R. 10 Ch. App. 424.

this objection is one which the courts are unwilling to entertain (i).

(B.) Where purchaser seeks specific performance. (B.) Purchaser The law is thus laid down by Sir William Grant specific perin Hill v. Buckly (j):—" Where a misrepresentation is formance, and may at the made as to the quantity, though innocently, I appresame time the hend the right of the purchaser to be, to have what abatement. the vendor can give, with an abatement out of the purchase-money for so much as the quantity falls short of the representation." "If," observes Lord Eldon, "a man, having partial interests in an estate, chooses to enter into a contract representing it, and agreeing to sell the estate, as his own, it is not competent to him afterwards to say, though he has valuable interests. he has not the entirety, and therefore the purchaser shall not have the benefit of his contract. For the purpose of this jurisdiction, the person contracting under these circumstances is bound by the assertion in his contract, Vendor must and if the vendee chooses to take as much as he can sell what inhave, he has a right to that, and to an abatement, and if purchaser elect. the court will not hear the objection of the vendor, that the purchaser cannot have the whole "(k).

Courts of equity will not, however, at the suit of a Partial perpurchaser, compel a partial performance of a contract formance not compelled, which is unreasonable or prejudicial to third parties where unreasonable or interested in the property (l), nor where the deficiency prejudicial as to the extent or duration of an interest contracted parties. to be sold does not admit of compensation (m).

⁽i) Ramsden v. Hirst, 4 Jur. N. S. 200; Brooke v. Rounthwaite, 5 Hare, 298; Powell v. Elliott, supra.

⁽j) 17 Ves. 401; Horrock v. Rigby, 9 Ch. Div. 180; but see Durham v. Legard, 34 L. J. Ch. 589.
(k) Mortlock v. Buller, 10 Ves. 315; Wilson v. Williams, 3 Jur. N. S. 810; Seaman v. Vawdrey, 16 Ves. 390; Painter v. Newby, 11 Hare, 26; Barker v. Cox, L. R. 4 Ch. Div. 464; M'Kenzie v. Hesketh, L. R. 7 Ch. Div. 675.

⁽¹⁾ Thomas v. Dering, I Keen, 729; Beeston v. Stutley, 6 W. R. 206. (m) Balmanno v. Lumley, I V. & B. 225; Ridgway v. Gray, I Mac. & G. 109.

(5.) Lapse of time.

At law, time always of the essence of the contract.

Equity is guided by the nature of the case as to time.

The objection that a plaintiff has not performed his part of the contract at the time specified, may furnish grounds of defence to suits for specific performance. At law, the plaintiff must show that all those things which are on his part to be performed, have been performed within a reasonable time, or, where time is specified by the contract, within the time so specified. At law, time used to be always of the essence of the contract (n); but in equity, the question of time was differently regarded; for a court of equity discriminated between those terms of a contract which were formal, and a breach of which it would be inequitable in either party to insist on as a bar to the other's rights, and those which were of the substance and essence of the agreement (o); and applying to contracts those principles which had governed its interference in relation to mortgages (p), it had held time to be primâ facie non-essential, and had accordingly granted specific performance of agreements after the time for their performance had been suffered to pass, by the party asking for the intervention of the court, if the other party had not shown a determination to proceed. When lapse of There were, however, certain cases where lapse of time was a bar to relief even in equity.

time is a bar in equity.

> (a.) Those cases where time was originally of the essence of the contract; and this whether made so by the express agreement of the parties (q), or from the nature of the subject-matter with which the parties were dealing, as in the case of reversionary

(a.) Where time was originally of the essence of the contract.

interests (r).

⁽n) Stowell v. Robinson, 3 Bing. N. C. 928.

⁽o) Parkin v. Thorold, 16 Beav. 59.

⁽p) Per Lord Eldon in Seton v. Slade, 7 Ves. 273. (q) Hudson v. Bartram, 3 Mad. 440; Honeyman v. Marryat, 21 Beav.

⁽r) Hipwell v. Knight, 1 Y. & C. Exch. Ca. 416; Withy v. Cottle, T. & R. 78; Walker v. Jeffreys, I Hare, 341.

(b.) Those cases where, though time was not origin- (b.) Where ally of the essence of the contract, it was engrafted time was made of the essence upon it by subsequent notice (s).

of the contract by subsequent no-

(c.) Cases where the delay had been so great as to (c.) Where constitute laches, disentitling the party to the aid of lapse of time was evidence the court, and evidencing an abandonment of the con- of laches or tract irrespectively of any peculiar stipulations as to time (t).

abandonment.

And now the rules of equity as to whether time is Law and or not of the essence of the contract prevail at law agree. also (u).

It has already been pointed out, that courts of (6.) The plainequity will never countenance fraud, and that where "clean there is reason to believe that a contract is tainted with hands." fraud, the court will refuse relief unless the party seeking its aid comes with clean hands, and has a conscientious title to relief (v). If, therefore, there has been actual misrepresentation (w), or fraudulent suppression of the truth (x), equity will refuse to enforce specific performance; and the defrauded person may even rescind the contract (y).

Although, as a general rule of equity, inadequacy (7.) Great hardship in of consideration, except in cases of sales of reversion- the contract. ary interests (z), and except where fraud or imposition

⁽⁸⁾ Taylor v. Brown, 2 Beav. 180; Benson v. Lamb, 9 Beav. 502;

Macbryde v. Weekes, 22 Beav. 533.
(t) Moore v. Blake, 2 Ball. & B. 62; Milward v. Thanet, 5 Ves. 720 n; Eads v. Williams, 4 De G. M. & G. 691; Mills v. Haywood, L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 196.

⁽u) Judicature Act, 1873, § 25, sub-sec. 7; Noble v. Edwards, 5 Ch. Div. 378.

⁽r) Harnett v. Yielding, 2 S. & L. 554; Reynell v. Spyre, I De G. M. & G. 660.

⁽w) Brooke v. Rounthwaite, 5 Hare, 298; Higgins v. Samels, 2 J. & H. 460; Farebrother v. Gibson, 1 De G. & Jo. 602.

⁽c) Drysdale v. Mace, 5 De G. M. & G. 103; Shirley v. Stratton, 1 Bro. C. C. 440.

⁽y) In re Bannister, W. N. 1879, p. 64.

⁽z) Playford v. Playford, 4 Hare, 546; and see supra, p. 476.

is presumed, is not a ground for refusing specific performance (a); still, as the aid by equity in such cases is discretionary, a contract which would work a great hardship will not be enforced, but the plaintiff will be left to his remedy at law (b).

(8.) The contract involves the doing of an unlawful act or breach of trust.

So again, as we have already seen, specific performance of an agreement to perform an unlawful act (c), or which would involve a breach of trust, will not be enforced (d).

(9.) The contract is not established.

Also, if the alleged contract is no contract, that is, if it is not a complete contract as such, but is incomplete as a contract simply, whether because of some condition precedent not having been performed or from any other cause whatever, the court will not enforce specific performance of it, because that would first be to make the contract (e). But a mere uncertainty in the amount of the land agreed to be sold, if that uncertainty is removable upon an inquiry, will not bar the right to specific performance (f).

(10.) The contract is already executed.

And finally, if the contract is no longer executory, but is executed by possession delivered or otherwise, then (in the absence of other equities) the court, semble, will not enforce it, because it is, of course, enforced already (g); secus, if there is an equity to enforce the contract (h).

⁽a) Sullivan v. Jacob, I Moll. 477.

⁽b) Wedgwood v. Adams, 6 Beav. 600, 8 Beav. 103; Watson v. Marston, 4 De G. M. & G. 230, 239; Tildesley v. Clarkson, 30 Beav. 419; Peacock v. Penson, 11 Beav. 355.

(c) Howe v. Hunt, 31 Beav. 420; Harnett v. Yielding, 2 Sch. & Lef.

^{554.} (d) Mortlock v. Buller, 10 Ves. 292; Rede v. Oakes, 13 W. R. 303;

Sneesby v. Thorne, 7 De G. M. & G. 399. (e) Rossiter v. Miller, L. R. 5 Ch. Div. 648; on App. 3 App. Ca. 1124; Williams v. Jordan, L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 517; Winn v. Bull, L. R. 7 Ch. Div. 29; Hudson v. Buck, L. R. 7 Ch. Div. 683. But distinguish Bonnewell v. Jenkins, 8 Ch. Div. 70.

⁽f) Chattock v. Muller, 8 Ch. Div. 177.

(g) Tress v. Savage, 4 Ell. & Black. 36; Haigh v. Jaggar, 16 Mee. & Wel. 525; 2 Coll. Ch. Ca. 231.

⁽h) Parker v. Taswell, 2 De Gex. & Jo. 559.

CHAPTER X.

INJUNCTION.

An injunction is a writ remedial, issuing by order of Definition. a court of equity, and now also by order of a court of law, in cases where the plaintiff is entitled to equitable relief; and its general purpose is to restrain the commission or continuance of some act of the party injoined (a).

The object of the writ or order is generally preven- Its object is tive and protective rather than restorative, although it preventive rather than may also be restorative. It seeks to prevent a medi-restorative. tated wrong more often than to redress an injury already done. It is not confined to cases falling within the exercise of the concurrent jurisdiction of the court; but it equally applies to cases belonging to its exclusive jurisdiction. It is treated of, however, in this place principally be cause it forms a broad foundation for the exercise of the concurrent jurisdiction in equity.

The writ of injunction was and still is peculiarly Jurisdiction an instrument of the court in its Chancery Division, of equity arose though there were some cases where courts of law, adequate remedy at law. even before the Common Law Procedure Act, 1854, and the Judicature Acts, 1873-75, were accustomed to exercise analogous powers, as by the writ of prohibition and estrepement in cases of waste (b). The cases,

⁽a) Joyce on Injunctions, 1.(b) Jefferson v. Bishop of Durham, 1 Bos. & P. 105, 120-132.

however, to which these common law processes were applicable, were so few, and the processes themselves were so utterly inadequate for the purposes of justice, that the jurisdiction at law fell practically into disuse, and almost all the remedial justice of this sort came to be administered through the instrumentality of courts of equity. The jurisdiction of these courts, then, had its true origin in the fact that there was either no remedy at all at law, or the remedy at law was imperfect and inadequate.

The cases in which courts of equity interfered by way of injunction were usually classed under two heads:—

Two classes of injunctions,—prior to Judicature Acts.

I. Injunctions to prevent the inequitable institution or continuance of judicial proceedings; and,

II. Injunctions to restrain wrongful acts unconnected with judicial proceedings.

Judicature Acts,—the changes effected by.

But now, under the Judicature Act (c), 1873, s. 24, sub-sect. 5, no cause or proceeding pending in the High Court of Justice or before the Court of Appeal shall be restrained by injunction, excepting in a bankruptcy or winding-up proceeding, after order made (d); but every matter of equity, which would formerly have been a ground for an injunction either absolute or conditional, may now be pleaded as a defence to the action, and the Court or Division before which the action is pending may upon the like grounds direct a stay of proceedings in the action, either general or interim, as shall appear to be just. And by the same Act, s. 25, sub-sect. 8, an injunction may be granted by an interlocutory order of the Court in all cases in which it shall appear to the Court to be "just or con-

⁽c) 36 & 37 Vict. c. 66.

⁽d) In re Landore Siemens Steel Co., 10 Ch. Div. 489.

venient" (e) that such order should be made, and the order may be either with or without any conditions. and either before, or at, or after, the trial of the action, against any threatened or apprehended waste or trespass, and whether or not the person sought to be enjoined is in possession under any claim of title or otherwise, or (not being in possession) claims the right merely to do the act in question, and irrespectively of the circumstance of the estates of the parties, or of any or either of them, being legal or equitable.

In consequence of these provisions of the Judicature Instead of in-Act, injunctions properly so called now fall under one first class, head only, that is to say, the second of the two heads now order to stay proceedabove mentioned; and all orders in the nature of an ings. injunction, which prior to that Act fell under the first of these two heads, would now be orders staying proceedings merely (f).

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Premising thus much, we propose to state, firstly, the cases in which formerly an injunction would have issued, but now only a stay of proceedings; and, secondly, the cases in which an injunction properly so called may issue.

I. Injunctions to restrain judicial proceedings, and I. Orders to stay proceednow being merely orders to stay the proceedings. ings,—cases

At first sight it might have seemed that a court of The old inequity in granting an injunction against a proceeding equity did in a court of common law, detracted from the dignity not interfere with the jurisof that court and interfered with its process; and until diction of the the reign of James I., the Common Law Judges as courts. strenuously resisted this exercise of equitable jurisdiction as the Chancellors asserted it (g). But there was no just foundation for the opposition of the courts of

⁽e) Day v. Brownrigg, 10 Ch. Div. 294. (f) Wright v. Redgrave, 11 Ch. Div. 24.

⁽q) Hallam's Const. Hist. vol. i. p. 472.

common law to the equitable jurisdiction. A writ of

injunction was in no real sense a prohibition to those courts in the exercise of their jurisdiction. It was not It did not even affect to addressed to those courts. interfere with them. The process, when its object was to restrain proceedings at law, was directed only to the parties. It neither assumed any superiority over the court in which those proceedings were had, nor denied It was granted on the sole ground. its jurisdiction. that from certain equitable circumstances, of which the court of equity granting the process had cognisance, it was against conscience that the party inhibited should proceed in the cause. Equity, in short, acted in per-In all cases, therefore, where by accident, mistake, or fraud, or otherwise, a party had an unfair advantage in proceedings in a court of law, which must necessarily have made that court an instrument of injustice, and it was therefore against conscience that he should use that advantage, a court of equity would restrain him from using that advantage which he had thus improperly gained; and in the like case the Court of Common Law would now do the like justice in the premises, either by admitting the equitable defence, or by staying the proceedings on the ground thereof.

Equity acted in personam on the conscience of the person enjoined.

Courts of equity might restrain proceedings in a foreign court, if the parties were within their jurisdiction, and they may still do so. Upon the same principle, although the courts of one country had no authority to stay proceedings in the courts of another, they had an undoubted authority to control all persons and things within their own territorial limits. Where, therefore, both parties to a suit in a foreign country were resident within the jurisdiction of the court of equity, it would restrain either party from proceeding in a suit out of its jurisdiction. They did not pretend to direct or control the foreign court, but, without regard to the situation of the subjectmatter of the dispute, they considered the equities between the parties, and decreed in personam according

to those equities, and enforced obedience to their decrees by process in personam (h). And, semble, any division of the court may now do the like in a proper case.

It would be difficult to enumerate all the cases Equity granted where courts of equity would grant an injunction, relief where the remedy at whether generally or to stay proceedings at law. They law would be afforded this relief not only where the defendant would proofs could have a complete remedy at law if he were in possession also in cases of the appropriate proofs, but also where the rights of of purely equitable the parties were wholly equitable in their nature, or rights. incapable, under the circumstances, of being asserted in a court of law. A brief enumeration of some of the cases in which a court of equity granted this mode of relief will best illustrate the scope of its jurisdiction, and will also show the cases in which at the present day a stay of proceedings in the action would be directed.

Where an instrument had been obtained by fraud or (1.) Equity undue influence, the court of equity would restrain proceedings on an ceedings at law on it. Thus, where a young man, an instrument obtained by officer in the army, soon after coming of age, became fraud or undue liable upon bills of exchange, for the accommodation and now a of his superior officer, to the defendant, a money-lender stay of proceedings may by profession; and upon negotiations for getting in be directed the bills, the defendant agreed to postpone them for twelve months, and induced the plaintiff, upon representations of his trouble and expense in procuring the postponement of the bills, to give him, in consideration of such trouble and expense, a further promissory note; the court not finding in the answer a satisfactory explanation of these transactions, sustained an injunction against the defendant proceeding at law upon his

in such a case.

⁽h) Portarlington v. Soulby, 3 My. & K. 106; Hope v. Carnegic, L. R. I Ch. 320; Carron Iron Co. v. Muclaren, 5 H. L. Cas. 416-437.

securities (i). In the like case, the court of law would direct a stay of proceedings in the action, and might even dismiss the action altogether or direct a verdict for the defendant.

(2.) Where assets had been lost by an executor or administrator without his default, equity restrained proceedings at law by creditors; and now a stay of proceedings may be directed in such a case.

Suppose, again, an executor or administrator should be in possession of abundant assets to pay all the debts of the deceased, and by an accidental fire, or by a robbery, without any default on his part, a great portion of them should be destroyed, so that the estate should be deeply insolvent; in such a case he might have been sued by a creditor at law, and would have had no defence; for when he once became chargeable with the assets at law, he was for ever chargeable, notwithstanding any intervening casualties. But courts of equity would restrain proceedings at law, in cases of this sort, upon the purest principles of justice (j); and now the courts of common law would stay the proceedings, or even direct a verdict for the defendant (k).

(3.) A party who had only an equitable title protected against one who had a bare legal title.

So again, where a party had only an equitable title, a plaintiff at law, having only a legal title, would be restrained from pursuing that title in a court of common law. Thus, in Newlands v. Paynter (l), personal chattels were bequeathed to a single woman for her separate use, but without the intervention of trustees, so that the property legally belonged to (i.e., the legal estate was in) her husband upon her subsequent marriage with him; and after the marriage this property was taken in execution for the debt of her husband, who at law was (as already stated) the legal owner; it was held, however, that the husband was a trustee for his wife, and an injunction was issued to restrain the

⁽i) Lloyd v. Clark, 6 Beav. 309; Tyler v. Yates, L. R. 11 Eq. 265. (j) Crosse v. Smith, 7 East, 258; Croft v. Lyndsey, Freem. Ch. 1. (k) And see Job v. Job, 26 W. R. 206; L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 562; Mayer

⁽k) And see Job v. Job, 26 W. R. 206; L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 562; Mayer v. Murray, 8 Ch. Div. 424.
(l) 4 My. & Cr. 408.

sale under the writ (m). And now a court of law would itself restrain or stay the execution against the wife's property.

Another class of cases in which injunctions were (4.) Injunction granted against proceedings at law, was where there on a creditor's had already been a decree upon a creditor's bill for the administraadministration of assets. Such a decree was considered in equity to be in the nature of a judgment for all the creditors; and, therefore, if subsequently to it a bond creditor should sue at law, the court of equity in which the decree was made would, in the assertion of its jurisdiction, restrain him from proceeding in his suit (n). And now the court of law would stay the action, and probably direct it to be transferred to the Chancery Division (o).

A party would not be permitted to sue for the same (5.) A party thing and for the same purpose, in equity as well as cannot bring several suits in another court, but would be put to his election to for one and the same pursue in one or the other (p). The only exception to pose. this general rule was the case of a mortgagee, who might pursue all his remedies, whether at law or in equity, concurrently (q); but in all cases, even in the exceptional case of a mortgagee, the actions would probably now be brought on together in some manner or other.

Courts of equity would grant an injunction to pro- (6.) Equity tect their own officers, who executed their processes, own officers against any suits brought against them for acts done who executed the processes under or in virtue of such processes. The ground of of the court.

⁽m) Langton v. Horton, 3 Beav. 464; Pyke v. Northwood, I Beav. 152.
(n) Morrice v. Bank of England, Cas. t. Talb. 217; Perry v. Phelips,
10 Ves. 38, 39; Burles v. Popplewell, 10 Sim. 383.
(o) Disting. Crowle v. Russell, 4 C. P. Div. 186.

⁽p) Vaughan v. Welsh, Mos. 210; Gedge v. Montrose, 5 W. R. 537.
(q) See Palmer v. Hendrie, 27 Beav. 349; Schoole v. Sall, 1 S. & L. 176.

this assertion of the jurisdiction was, that courts of equity would not suffer their processes to be examined by any other courts. If the processes were irregular, it was the duty of the courts of equity themselves to apply the proper remedy (r). And courts of law would always do the like; so that as regards this matter, law and equity already agreed before the Judicature Acts were passed.

In what cases equity would not stay proceedings at law. (I.) In criminal matters. or in matters not purely civil.

There were, however, cases in which courts of equity would not exercise any jurisdiction by way of injunction to stay proceedings at law. In the first place, they would not interfere to stay proceedings in any criminal matters, or in cases not strictly of a civil nature; as, for instance, on an indictment, or a mandamus, or a criminal information. But this restriction applied, of course, only to cases where the parties seeking redress by such proceedings were not also the plaintiffs in equity; for if they were, the court possessed power to restrain them personally from proceeding at the same time upon the same matter of right in both a civil suit and a criminal prosecution (s). Regarding actions of libel, the court of equity would not usually restrain them; they were, in fact, actions exclusively appropriate to the courts of common law where a jury could be had (t).

(2.) Where the ground of defence was equally available at law. and had not been taken or maintained there.

A court of equity had no jurisdiction to relieve a plaintiff against a judgment at law where the case in equity rested upon a ground equally available at law and in equity, unless the plaintiff could establish some special equitable ground for relief (u). And after

⁽r) May v. Hook, cited 2 Dick. 619; Walker v. Micklethwait, 1 Dr. & Sm. 49; Re James Campbell, 3 De G. M. & G. 585.

⁽s) Holderstaffe v. Saunders, 6 Mod. 16; Montague v. Dudman, 2 Ves. Sr. 396; Mayor of York v. Pilkington, 2 Atk. 302; St. 893.

(t) Prudential Assurance Co. v. Knott, L. R. 10 Ch. App. 142. But see Thorley's Cattle Food Co. v. Massam, L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 582; and Hinrichs v. Berndes, W. N. 1878, p. 11.

(u) Harrison v. Nettleship, 2 My. & K. 423.

equitable defences could be pleaded at common law under the Common Law Procedure Act, 1854, still less would equity give relief (v). It was no ground for equitable interference that a party had not effectually availed himself of a defence at law, or that a court of law had erroneously decided a point of pure law (w).

"It is not sufficient," says Lord Redesdale, "to show As a rule, a that injustice has been done, but that it has been adjudicated done under circumstances that authorise the court to on by a common law court interfere. Because if a matter has already been in-cannot be revestigated in a court of justice, according to the com-equity. mon and ordinary rules of investigation, a court of equity cannot take on itself to enter into it again. The inattention of the parties in a court of law can scarcely be made a subject for the interference of a court of equity. There may be cases cognisable at law, and also in equity, and of which cognisance cannot be effectually taken at law; and, therefore, equity does sometimes interfere, as in cases of complicated accounts, where the party has not made defence, because it was impossible for him to do it effectually at law. So where a verdict has been obtained by fraud, or where a party has possessed himself improperly of something, by means of which he has had an unconscientious advantage at law, which equity will either put out of the way or restrain him from using: But without circumstances of that kind, I do not know that equity ever does interfere to grant a trial of a matter which has been already discussed in a court of law, a matter capable of being discussed there, and over which a court of law had full jurisdiction "(x).

Gr. 81.

⁽v) Farebrother v. Welchman, 3 Drew. 122. (w) Simpson v. Howden, 3 My. & Cr. 108; Protheroe v. Forman, 2 Swanst. 227, 233; Ware v. Horwood, 14 Ves. 31. (x) Bateman v. Willoe, 1 Sch. & Lef. 204-205; Leitch v. Leitch, 11

Of course, in all such cases, the proper course is to appeal.

Equitable defences allowed at common law.

But only in cases in which courts of equity would grant an unconditional and perpetual injunction.

By the Common Law Procedure Act, 1854 (y), the courts of common law obtained power to receive pleas of defence on equitable grounds. The equitable plea, however, was only admissible in such cases as, having regard to the machinery of the courts of law and the forms of proceedings therein, complete justice could thereby be done between the parties. In all other cases, therefore, where the defendant would have been only entitled to such a modified relief as could not properly be dealt with by a court of law, he would still have had to resort to a court of equity. In Jeffs v. Day (z), Blackburn, J., says:—" Under the Common Law Procedure Act, 1854, we have jurisdiction to entertain equitable defences; but we can only allow such pleas to be pleaded as, if proved, would be asimple bar to the action, and would entitle the defendant to the common law judgment, 'that the plaintiff take nothing by his writ, and that the defendant go thereof without day,' which would in effect be equivalent to a perpetual injunction in a court of equity."

Defendant cannot be compelled to plead an equitable defence at law. Although there was an equitable defence at law, the defendant could not be compelled to plead such equitable defence, but might at once come into equity for an injunction to restrain the action. The Common Law Procedure Act was only permissive. To say that where a man had a good equitable defence, he must proceed at law, and plead that equitable defence, would have been in effect to make imperative that which the legislature had made optional (a). But since the Judicature Acts, this option is in effect taken away; and the defendant at law may now plead equitable de-

 ⁽y) 17 & 18 Vict. c. 125, s. 83.
 (a) Gompertz v. Pooley, 4 Drew. 453; Kingsford v. Swinsford, 28 L.
 J. Ch. 413.

fences of every kind and degree of weight, and he must, in fact, do so if he would avail himself of them at all. He certainly cannot now come into equity to restrain the action on any such grounds. And when there has been an agreement to refer to arbitration, an order staying the action may now be made in a proper case (b).

II. Injunctions to restrain wrongful acts uncon-II. Injuncnected with judicial proceedings.

wrongful acts of a special

The equitable jurisdiction under this head may be Two classes. divided into two classes.

- I. Injunctions to enforce a contract (express or implied) or to forbid a breach thereof.
- 2. Injunctions to prevent a tort, that is, a wrong independent of contract.
- I. With reference to injunctions to enforce a con- I. Injunction tract, or to forbid a violation of its terms, the jurisdic-in cases of contract. tion of equity may be said to be co-extensive with its power to compel specific performance. Whatever duty supplemental a court of equity will compel a party to perform, it to the juriswill generally, on the other hand, restrain him from compel specific performneglecting to perform (c). And in many cases, where, ance. from the nature of the subject-matter, the court does not decree specific performance, on the ground of its inability to carry such a decree into effect, it will grant an injunction to restrain the doing of an act contrary to the tenor of the contract; and in effect, though indirectly, it compels thereby a specific performance of the contract. Thus in the case of Catt v. Tourle (d),

⁽b) Law v. Garrett, 8 Ch. Div. 26; and distinguish Mulkern v. Lord, (c) Drew. on Injunctions, 250. 4 App. Ca. 182. (d) L. R. 4 Ch. 654. And see Cooke v. Chilcott, L. R. 3 Ch. Div. 694; Luker v. Dennis, L. R. 7 Ch. Div. 227; and distinguish Master v. Hansard, L. R. 4 Ch. Div. 718; Renals v. Cowlishaw, 9 Ch. Div. 125.

the plaintiff, a brewer, sold a piece of land to the trustees of a freehold land society, who covenanted that he should have the exclusive right of supplying beer to any public-house erected on the land so sold. The defendant, a member of the society, who was also a brewer, acquired a portion of the land, with notice of the covenant, and erected on it a public-house, which he supplied with his own beer. On a bill filed to restrain the defendant from supplying beer, the court held that the covenant, though in terms positive, was in substance negative, and granted an injunction accordingly.

Injunction a mode of specific performance of negative agreements.

It is evident that where a contract is not to do a thing, which contract is capable of being enforced in equity, it may be, and naturally is, enforced by the court by means of an injunction restraining the doing of that act (e). Therefore, where an agreement was entered into between the plaintiffs (who resided very near the church of Hammersmith) of the one part, and the parson, churchwardens, overseers, and certain inhabitants of the parish of the other part, by which the plaintiffs covenanted to erect a new cupola, clock, and bell to the church; and the parties of the second part covenanted that a bell which had been daily rung at five o'clock in the morning, to the great annoyance of the plaintiffs, should not be rung during the lives of the plaintiffs, or the survivors of them; the plaintiffs performed their part of the agreement, but the bell, after two years, was rung again; the agreement was specifically enforced against the parish authorities by means of an injunction against ringing the bell in breach of the agreement (f).

Court of

It seems to be now settled that the inability of

⁽e) Lumley v. Wagner, 1 De G. M. & G. 615.

⁽f) Martin v. Nutkin, 2 P. Wms. 266; Barret v. Blagrave, 5 Ves. 555; S. C. 6 Ves. 104; Fry on Spec. Perf. 329; Broder v. Saillard, L. R. 2 Ch. Div. 692; Richards v. Revitt, L. R. 7 Ch. Div. 224.

equity to compel the specific performance of one part equity may of an agreement, is not per se a ground for its refusing breach of to enjoin against the breach of another part of the part of an same agreement. Thus, in Lumley v. Wagner (g), J. W. though it canagreed with W. L. that she would sing at B. L's specific pertheatre during a certain period of time, and would formance of the rest. not sing elsewhere without his written authority. court granted an injunction against J. W. singing at a The Lord Chancellor said :—" The prerival theatre. sent is a mixed case, consisting not of two correlative acts to be done, one by the plaintiff, and the other by the defendant, . . . but of an act to be done by J. W. alone, to which is superadded a negative stipulation on her part to abstain from the commission of any act which will break in upon her affirmative covenant. the one being ancillary to, concurrent and operating together with, the other. The agreement to sing for the plaintiff during three months at his theatre, and during that time not to sing for anybody else, is not a correlative contract; it is in effect one contract; and though beyond all doubt this court could not interfere to enforce the specific performance of the whole of this contract, yet in all sound construction, and according to the true spirit of the agreement, the engagement to perform for three months at one theatre must necessarily exclude the right to perform at the same time at another theatre.

"It was objected that the operation of the injunction in the present case was mischievous, excluding the defendant, J. W., from any other theatre, while the court had no power to compel her to perform at Her Majesty's Theatre. It is true that I have not the means of compelling her to sing, but she has no cause of complaint if I compel her to abstain from the commission of an act which she has bound herself not to do, and thus possibly cause her to fulfil her

engagement. The jurisdiction which I now exercise is wholly within the power of the court; and being of opinion that it is a proper case for interfering, I shall leave nothing unsatisfied by the judgment I pronounce "(h).

No specific performance where court cannot secure performance by the plaintiff. But where the terms of a contract are such that the court cannot superintend so as to secure the performance by a plaintiff on his part, it will not decree specific performance; and if, on non-performance by a plaintiff, both parties cannot have equal justice, it will not, in the absence of an express negative covenant, and where the contract cannot be split into two separate and independent portions, and the negative part enforced, grant an injunction to restrain acts, the doing of which is inconsistent with the maintenance of the contract (i).

Injunction, although the contract is implied only.

It is not only in the case of express contracts of the kinds above illustrated that equity interposes by injunction to restrain conduct contrary to their tenor, but also in implied contracts resulting from the acts or representations of the parties.

If a representation is made inducing another to do an act, equity restrains the contrary.

Thus, it is a very old head of equity jurisdiction, that if a person makes a representation to another as an inducement to him to act, and he thereupon acts upon the faith of that representation, the former shall make it good. A., the lessee of a building lease, in which there was a covenant to erect houses on three plots of land in a specified manner, sold one of the houses to B., the plaintiff's predecessor in title, to whom he represented that he was restricted from building, so as to obstruct the sea view. A., in the

(i) Joyce on Injunctions, 204; Peto v. Brighton, Uckfield, and Tun-

bridge Wells Railway Company, 11 W. R. 874.

⁽h) Montague v. Flockton, L. R. 16 Eq. 189. But see Wolverhampton Railway v. London and North-Western Railway, L. R. 16 Eq. 440; Fothergill v. Rowland, L. R. 17 Eq. 141.

sub-lease granted to B., covenanted to observe the lessee's covenants in the original lease, but subsequently surrendered the old lease to his lessor, and a new lease without the restrictive covenant was granted to him in lieu thereof; and A. commenced building, contrary to the original covenant. Upon a bill filed by the plaintiff, it was held that he was entitled to an injunction (i).

It has upon similar principles been held that where A party claima person claiming a title in himself is privy to the fact himself, and that another party is dealing with the property as his standing by while another own, he will be restrained from asserting his own title deals with the against a title created by such other person, although his own, rehe derives no benefit from the transaction (k). And strained. the same doctrine is applicable where a person having a title to an estate stands by and suffers a person ignorant of it to expend money upon the estate. In such cases, the person who has so expended money will, in equity, be indemnified for his expenditure on eviction, by the real owner, for it would be inequitable for him to profit by his own fraud (l).

2. Injunctions to prevent a tort, i.e., a wrong inde- 2. Injunctions against torts. pendent of contract.

It may be laid down as a general rule, that wherever Wherever a right exists, or is created, a violation of that right right, there will be prohibited, subject to the limitation that the is a remedy for its breach, right is cognisable by law. It follows, therefore, that if the right be cognisable by the restraining process of equity will apply to the a court of whole range of rights and duties which are recog-justice. nised as enforceable at law. But it should also be remembered that though the jurisdiction of equity is in principle so extensive, it is restrained and modified

⁽j) Piggott v. Stratton, 1 De G. F. & Jo. 33; Slim v. Croucher, 1 De G. F. & Jo. 518.

⁽k) Nicholson v. Hooper, 4 My. & Cr. 186.

⁽¹⁾ Neesom v. Clurkson, 4 Hare, 97; Dann v. Spurrier, 7 Ves. 235.

by considerations of expediency and convenience; and that equity will not interfere where the breach of a duty or the violation of a right may be completely and adequately paid for by damages at law, or where other reasons of justice and convenience are against the intervention of equity. It is proposed now to consider a few of the more important and representative cases in which equity interferes by injunction to restrain breaches of duty or violations of right.

1. Jurisdiction in cases of waste. I. In cases of waste.

Waste may be defined as a destructive or material alteration of things forming an essential part of the inheritance (m).

Arose from incompetency of common law. Common law powers over waste. The jurisdiction of equity to restrain waste arose, as in most other cases, from the original incompetency of the common law to give adequate relief. The ancient jurisdiction at common law with regard to waste may be thus shortly stated. By the Statutes of Marlebridge (n), of Gloucester (o), and of Westminster (p), a writ of waste might be brought by him who had the immediate estate of inheritance in reversion or remainder against the tenant for life, tenant in dower, tenant by the curtesy, or tenant for years; it might also be brought by one tenant in common or joint-tenant against another who wasted the estate held in common or joint-tenancy. But it did not lie between co-parceners (q); and in many other cases also the courts of law had no effective jurisdiction in waste.

In what cases equity interferes.

Courts of equity, on the other hand, by no means limited themselves to an interference in the cases above mentioned provided for by statute. They extended

⁽m) Tudor's Real Property Cases, 90.

⁽n) 52 Hen. III.

^{(0) 6} Edw. I. c. 5. (q) 3 Black. Com. 227, 228; Jefferson v. Bishop of Durham, I Bos. & Pull. 120.

this salutary relief to cases where the remedies provided in the courts of common law could not be made to apply; and to cases where the titles of the parties were purely of an equitable nature; and to cases where the waste was what is commonly, although with no great propriety of language, termed equitable waste (r), meaning acts which were deemed waste only in courts Equitable of equity; and to cases where no waste had been waste. actually committed, but was only meditated or apprehended; equity, in all these cases, interfered by a bill quia timet, or other bill for an injunction (s).

In the first place, there were many cases where a Cases where a person was dispunishable at law for committing waste, person is dispunishable at and yet a court of equity would enjoin him. As where law. there was a tenant for life, remainder for life, remainder in fee, the tenant for life would be restrained by injunction from committing waste; although, if he did commit waste, no action of waste could lie against him at law by the remainder-man for life, for he had not the inheritance; nor by the remainder-man in fee, by reason of the interposed remainder for life (t).

So where a tenant for life held his estate without As where a impeachment of waste, he might fell timber, open new tenant for life abuses his mines or pits, and have full property in the produce (u). legal right to commit waste. This was his legal right, and if, in exercising that right, he was guilty of malicious, extravagant, and capricious waste, such as pulling down and dismantling a mansionhouse (v), or felling timber planted or left standing for ornament or shelter of a mansion-house or grounds (w),

⁽r) Downshire v. Sandys, 6 Ves. 109, 110. But see now 36 & 37 Vict. c. 66, s. 25, § 3.

⁽⁸⁾ St. 912. (t) Garth v. Cotton, I Ves. Sr. 524, 555, s. c.; I L. C. 751.
 (u) Co. Litt. 220 α; Lewis Bowles's Case, II Co. 79 b.
 (v) Vane v. Barnard, 2 Vern. 738.

⁽w) Rolt v. Somerville, 2 Eq. Ca. Abr. 759; Morris v. Morris, 15 Sim. 505; Micklethwaite v. Micklethwaite, 1 De G. & Jo. 519.

after possibility of issue extinct.

there was no remedy at common law, yet he would be restrained in equity. And the same rule was applied Tenant in tail to a tenant in tail after possibility of issue extinct, who had the same power to commit waste as a tenant for life, without impeachment of waste (x).

Cases where the aggrieved party has purely an equitable title.

Mortgagor and mort-! gagee.

In the next place, courts of equity granted an injunction in cases where the aggrieved party had a purely equitable right, and, indeed, it has been said that these courts would grant it more strongly where Thus, for instance, in there was a trust estate (y). cases of mortgages, if the mortgagor in possession should fell timber on the estate, and thereby the security would become insufficient, but not otherwise, a court of equity would restrain the mortgagor by injunction (z). On the other hand, a mortgagee in possession would not be permitted to waste the estate, unless the security proved defective, in which case the court would not restrain him from felling timber, the produce being, of course, applied in ease of the estate (α) .

Permissive waste not remediable in equity.

It seems that courts of equity had no jurisdiction in cases of permissive waste by a tenant for life having the legal estate (b); permissive waste being defined as an act of omission—as not doing repairs, whereby houses were suffered to fall into decay (c). Moreover, no injunction will now be granted to stay ameliorative waste (d).

Waste under the Judicature Act, 1873.

Under the Judicature Act, 1873, the jurisdiction of equity in all these cases substantially remains, notwithstanding that by that Act (e), the distinction between legal and equitable waste is in effect abolished, and

(e) Sect. 25, sub-sect. 3.

⁽x) Att.-Gen. v. D. of Marlborough, 3 Madd. 538; Abrahall v. Bubb, Swanst. 172. (y) Robinson v. Litton, 3 Atk. 209. 2 Swanst. 172.

⁽z) King v. Smith, 2 Hare, 239; Russ v. Mills, 7 Gr. 145.
(a) Withrington v. Banks, Sel. Ch. Ca. 31.

⁽b) Powys v. Blagrave, Kay, 495; 4 De G. M. & G. 448.

⁽d) Doherty v. Allman, 3 App. Ca. 709.

courts of law may now give damages and even an injunction in the case of equitable waste; and notwithstanding also that by the same Act(f), the courts of law (or common law divisions of the High Court) equally with the Courts of Equity (or Chancery Division) are enabled and are compellable to recognise all equitable estates and titles.

2. In cases of nuisances.

2. Nuisances.

In cases of public nuisances, properly so called, an Public indictment or a criminal information lies to abate them, nuisances abated by and to punish the offenders. But a civil information lies indictment, but sometimes in equity to redress the grievance by way of injunction. also by an in-Thus, informations have been maintained against a information public nuisance occasioned by stopping a highway (g). filed. But the question of nuisance or not is eminently one for a jury, although the court may indeed try the question of fact itself, under Rolt's Act hereinafter mentioned, . or under the provisions regarding the trial of questions of fact contained in the new orders and rules under the Judicature Acts, 1873-75.

As a general rule, a suit of this nature is instituted by Public nuithe Attorney-General, or he is made a party, as represented as special senting the public. But when a private person suffers damage,—ground for a a special and peculiar injury distinct from that of the merely civil public in general, in consequence of a public nuisance, he will be entitled to an injunction and relief in equity, and he may thus compel the wrong-doer to take active measures against allowing the injury to continue, and in such a case the Attorney-General is not a necessary party to the action (h).

In regard to private nuisances, the interference of Equity has :

(h) Wood v. Sutcliffe, 2 Sim. N. S. 163.

⁽f) Sect. 24, sub-sect. 1.

⁽g) Att.-Gen.v. Cleaver, 18 Ves. 217; Ripon v. Hobart, 3 My. & K. 169, 179.

jurisdiction in cases of private nuisances,-in a merely civil action.

courts of equity by way of injunction is undoubtedly founded upon the ground of restraining irreparable mischief, or of suppressing vexatious and interminable litigation, or of preventing multiplicity of suits. is not, however, every nuisance that will justify the interposition of a court of equity. There must be such an injury as from its nature is not susceptible of being adequately compensated by damages at law, or such as, from its continuance or permanently or increasingly mischievous character, must occasion a constantly recurring grievance, which cannot be otherwise prevented, save by an injunction (i). Thus it has been said, that every common trespass is not a foundation for an injunction, where it is only contingent, fugitive, or temporary. But if it is continued so long as to become a nuisance, the person committing it ought to be restrained; so also, if there is a claim of right to do it, that is a sufficient ground for an injunction (i). mere fanciful diminution of the value of property by a nuisance, without irreparable mischief, will not furnish any foundation for equitable relief (k).

Where injury is irreparable.

On the other hand, where the injury is irreparable, as where loss of health (1), loss of trade, destruction of the means of subsistence, or permanent ruin to property, may or will ensue from the wrongful act, in every such case courts of equity will interfere by injunction (m). Thus, for example, where a party builds so near the house of another party as to darken his windows, against the clear rights of the latter, either by contract or by ancient possession, courts of equity will interfere by injunction to prevent the nuisance, as

Darkening ancient lights.

⁽i) Fishmongers' Co. v. East India Co., I Dick. 163.

⁽j) Pennington v. Brinsop Hall Coal Co., L. R. 5 Ch. Div. 769; and see Goodson v. Richardson, L. R. 9 Ch. App. 221.
(k) Att.-Gen. v. Nicholl, 16 Ves. 342; and see Sturges v. Bridgeman,

¹¹ Ch. Div. 852.

⁽¹⁾ Walter v. Selfe, 20 L. J. Ch. 433.

⁽m) Wynstanley v. Lee, 2 Swanst. 335; Broadbent v. Imp. Gas Co., 7 De G. M. & G. 436.

well as to remedy it, if already done. The injury is material, and operates daily to destroy or diminish the comfort and use of the adjoining house; and the remedy by a multiplicity of actions for the continuance of it would furnish no substantial compensation (n). And this reason is much stronger in the case of nuisances arising from the pollution of streams (o).

Upon the same principle, it has been held that a Rights to late-landowner has a right, independently of prescription, soil. to the lateral support of his neighbour's land, so far as that is necessary to sustain the soil of his land in its natural state, and also to compensation for damages caused either to the land or buildings upon it by the withdrawal of such support, it being established that the additional weight of the buildings had nothing to do with the subsidence of the soil. And he may acquire, of soil with by twenty years' enjoyment, the right to lateral support it. for the buildings also erected on the land (p).

So equity will interfere to prevent the pollution of streams, causing injury to the riparian owners. In Att.-Gen. v. Borough of Birmingham (q), Wood, V.-C., thus expresses himself—"Now the plaintiff's rights are these: he has a clear right to enjoy the river, which, before the defendant's operations, flowed unpolluted—or, at all events, so far unpolluted that fish could live in the stream, and cattle would drink of it—through his grounds, for three miles and upwards, in exactly the same condition in which it flowed formerly, so that cattle may drink of it without injury, and fish, which were accustomed to frequent it, may not be driven elsewhere. . . . As regards the discretion the court

⁽n) Att.-Gen. v. Nichol, 16 Ves. 338; Wynstanley v. Lee, 2 Swanst. 335; Theed v. Debenham, L. R. 2 Ch. Div. 165; N. P. Insurance Co., v. P. Assurance Co., L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 757; Aynsley v. Glover, L. R. 10 Ch. App. 283; Leech v. Schweder, L. R. 9 Ch. App. 463.

(o) Pennington v. Brinsop Hall Coal Co., supra.

⁽p) Hunt v. Peake, Johns. 705. (q) 4 K. & J. 546.

Plaintiff would otherwise have to bring a series of actions. should exercise where such right exists, if the plaintiff finds the river so polluted as to be a continuous injury to him; if, in order to assert his right, he would be obliged to bring a series of actions, one every day of his life, in respect of every additional injury to his cattle, or every additional annoyance to himself (not to mention the permanent injury which he would sustain in having the water—which, as it passes along the course of his land, is his property—so damaged that he cannot use it), then the court will properly exercise its discretion by granting an injunction to relieve him from the necessity of bringing a series of actions, in order to obtain the damages to which such continual and daily annoyance entitles him."

Further pollution of streams.

This interference of equity to prevent the pollution of streams is available also for preventing the further pollution of a stream that is already comparatively polluted (r), such further pollution being, of course, sensible and not merely fanciful.

3. Patents, copyright, and trade-marks.

3. Cases of patents, copyright, and trade-marks.

It is in order to prevent irreparable mischief, or to suppress multiplicity of suits and vexatious litigation, that courts of equity interfere in cases of patents for inventions, and in cases of copyrights to secure the rights of the inventor or author.

Damages at law utterly inadequate.

It is quite plain that if no other remedy could be given in cases of patent and copyright than an action at law for damages, the inventor or author might be ruined by the necessity of perpetual litigation, without ever being able to have a final establishment of his rights. Besides, in cases of this nature, mere damages

⁽r) See Pennington v. Brinsop Hall Coal Co., L. R. 5 Ch. Div. 769; Crossley v. Lightowler, L. R. 3 Eq. 279, and S. C. on appeal L. R. 2 Ch. App. 478; and distinguish Baxendale v. M'Murray, L. R. 2 Ch. App. 790.

would often give most inadequate relief. For example, in the case of a copyright, the sale of copies by the defendant is not only in each instance taking from the author the profit upon the individual book, which he might otherwise have sold, but it may also be injuring him to an incalculable extent in regard to the value and disposition of his copyright, which no inquiry for the purpose of damages could fully ascertain (s).

The jurisdiction will be exercised in all cases where Jurisdiction, there is a clear colour of title, founded upon long pos- when exercised. session and assertion of right. Even an equitable interest, limited in point of time or extent, is sufficient. But a mere agent to sell has not such a real interest in a work as will entitle him to relief (t). The question of piracy or no piracy is at the present day usually decided by the court, on a personal inspection of the book; but if necessary, an issue will be directed at law (u).

(A.) In cases, however, where a patent has been (A.) Patents: granted for an invention, it is not a matter of course Injunction is not a matter for courts of equity to interpose by way of injunction. of course; de-If the patent had been but recently granted, and its cumstances. validity had not been ascertained by a trial at law, the Has validity of patent been court would not generally act upon its own notions of established? the validity or invalidity of the patent, and grant an immediate injunction; but it would require the validity to be ascertained by a trial in a court of law if the defendant denied its validity, or put the matter in doubt (v). But if the patent had been granted for Has it been in some length of time, and the patentee had put the existence for a long time? invention into public use, and had had an exclusive

⁽s) Hogg v. Kirby, 8 Ves. 223.
(t) Nicol v. Stockdale, 3 Swanst. 687.

⁽u) Copinger on Copyright, 118, 119. (v) Martin v. Wright, 6 Sm. 297; Saunders v. Smith, 3 My. & Cr. 711, 728.

possession under his patent for a period of time, which might fairly create the presumption of an exclusive right, the court would ordinarily interfere by way of injunction. And now in all cases, the court will determine for itself, or procure to be determined by a jury the preliminary question of the validity before granting an injunction, subject, however, to the following distinctions:—

Three courses open to the court upon an interlocutory application. (a.) Injunction simpliciter. (b.) Interim injunction, plaintiff undertaking as to damages. (c.) Injunction directed to stand over, until trial, defendant keeping an account.

Where the application is for an interlocutory injunction, several courses are open; the court may at once grant the injunction *simpliciter*, without more—a course which, though perfectly competent to the court, is not very likely to be taken where the defendant raises a question as to the validity of the plaintiff's title; or it may follow the more usual and more wholesome practice in such a case, of either granting an interim injunction, and at the same time requiring the plaintiff to give an undertaking as to damages, or of suspending the grant of the injunction until the trial, the defendant in the meantime keeping an account (w).

(B.)Copyright. No copyright in irreligious, immoral, or libellous works.

(B.) There are some peculiar principles applicable to cases of copyright, which are not generally applicable to patents for inventions. In the first place, the plaintiff must make out his title to the copyright, by registration and otherwise. Secondly, no copyright can exist consistently with principles of public policy in any work of a clearly irreligious, immoral, libellous, or obscene description; because, in order to establish such a claim, the author must in the first place show a right to sell the work, and this he cannot do, he himself being unable to acquire a property therein (x). In the case of an asserted piracy of such a work, if it be a matter

⁽w) Bacon v. Jones, 4 My. & Cr. 433, 436,—adapted to suit the modern practice; see Plimpton v. Spiller, L. R. 4 Ch. Div. 286.

(x) Copinger on Copyright, 48.

of any real doubt whether it falls within such a description or not, courts of equity will not interfere by injunction to prevent or restrain the piracy, but will leave the party to his remedy at law (y). And this rule is not altered by the Judicature Acts, -thus far at least, viz., that the court, while retaining the action, will direct an issue to be tried at the assizes, and thereafter will grant or refuse the injunction according as the jury find the work to be moral or the opposite.

In the next place, in cases of copyright, difficulties What is an inoften arise in ascertaining whether there has been fringement of copyright. actual infringement thereof. It is, for instance, clearly settled not to be an infringement of the copyright of a book to make bonû fide quotations or extracts from Bond fide it, or a bona fide abridgment of it, or to make a bona fide abridgment of it, or to make a bona fide fide use of the same common materials in the composi-abridgment, or bond fide tion of another work. But what constitutes a bond use of comfide use of extracts, or a bonâ fide abridgment, or a mon materials, not an bona fide use of common materials, is often a matter of infringement. most embarrassing inquiry. The true question, it has been said, in all these cases, is, whether there has been a legitimate use of the copyright publication, by the fair exercise of a mental operation deserving the character of a new work (z). But if one, instead of searching into the common sources, and obtaining his materials from them, should avail himself of the labour of his predecessor, and adopt his arrangement, or do it with only a colourable variation, it would be an infringement of the copyright. But it is no infringe- Identical quoment where an author has been led by an earlier tations, writer to consult authorities referred to by him, even suggested by earlier writers. though he may quote the same passages from those authorities which were used by the earlier writer (a).

⁽y) Lawrence v. Smith, Jacob, 472; Walcot v. Walker, 7 Ves. I.
(z) Cumpbell v. Scott, II Sim. 3I; Lewis v. Fullarton, 2 Beav. 6.
(a) Pike v. Nicholas, L. R. 5 Ch. 25I.

Neither is it an infringement if nothing material is taken (b).

Maps, calendars, tables.

The general doctrine on copyright in publications of the class of maps, road-books, calendars, chronological and other tables, is not very easily reducible to any accurate definition. Here the materials being equally open to all, there must be a close identity or similitude in the very form and use of the common materials. The difficulty here is to distinguish what belongs to the exclusive labours of a single mind, from what are the common sources of the materials of the knowledge used by all. Suppose, for instance, the case of maps; one man may publish the map of a country; another man, with the same design, if he has equal skill and opportunity, may by his own labour produce almost a fac-simile. He has certainly a right so to do. But he is not at liberty to copy that map, and claim it as his own. He may work on the same original materials; but he cannot exclusively and evasively use those already collected and embodied by the skill, industry, and expenditure of another. fact of copy or no copy is generally ascertained, in the absence of direct evidence, by the appearance in the alleged copy of the same inaccuracies or blunders that are to be found in the first published work. But this is a mode of inference which must be applied with caution (c).

Copyright in lectures.

In Abernethy v. Hutchinson (d), it was held that when persons are admitted as pupils or otherwise to hear lectures, although they were orally delivered, and although the parties might go to the extent of putting down the whole by means of shorthand, yet they can do that only for the purposes of their own information.

⁽b) Chatterton v. Cave, 3 App. Ca. 483. (c) Wilkins v. Aikin, 17 Ves. 424; Longman v. Winchester, 16 Ves. (d) 1 H. & Tw. 40; s. c. 3 L. J. Ch. 209. 260.

and cannot publish for profit that which they have not obtained the right of selling. And, consequently, another person, who, in the absence of evidence as to how he came by them, must in the opinion of the court have obtained them from a pupil, would be restrained. Copyright in lectures is now, under certain conditions, protected by legislative enactment (e).

There may be a valid copyright in the mere title to Copyright in a book, e.g., in the title "Trial and Friendship" (f).

As to private letters, whether on literary subjects or Copyright in on matters of private business, personal friendships or rary subjects family concerns, a learned writer lays down the follow- or private matters. ing conclusions (g):—

- I. That the writer of private letters has such a I. The writer qualified right of property in them as will entitle him their publication an injunction to restrain their publication by the tion. party written to, or his assignees (h).
- 2. That the party written to has such a qualified 2. The party right of property in the letters written to him as will written to may also reentitle him, or his personal representative, to restrain publication by the publication of them by a stranger (i).
- 3. That such qualified right may be displaced 3. Publication by reasons of public policy, or by some personal grounds of equity (j).

An injunction will be granted to restrain the publi-Injunction against pubcation of an unpublished manuscript. This doctrine lication of an

⁽e) 5 & 6 Will. IV. c. 65. (f) Weldon v. Dicks, 10 Ch. Div. 247.

⁽g) Drew. on Inj., 208, 209.
(h) Pope v. Curl, 2 Atk. 342; Gee v. Pritchard, 2 Swanst. 402.

⁽i) Granard v. Dunkin, I Ball & Beat. 207; Thompson v. Stanhope, Amb. 737.

⁽j) Perceval v. Phipps, 2 V. & B. 19; Joyce on Injunctions, 351, 352.

unpublished manuscript.

appears to have been first established in the case of the *Duke of Queensberry* v. *Shebbeare* (k). In that case, the plaintiff claimed, as administrator of A., a descendant of Lord Clarendon, to restrain the defendant from publishing the "History of the Rebellion;" and the defendant claimed, under a delivery by A. of the original manuscript to the father of another defendant, with permission to take a copy and make what use he thought fit of it. But it was held, that it was not to be presumed that Lord Clarendon meant the defendant's ancestor to have the profit of multiplying the work in print, though he might make any other use of it except that (l).

(C.) Trademarks.
Injunction against use of trade-marks does not depend on property, but because equity will not premit fraud.

(C.) With regard to the use of trade-marks, and generally to the enjoyment of a particular trade designation, the right to protection does not seem to depend upon a property in them, but on the principle that the court will not allow fraud to be practised upon private individuals or upon the public. "This right cannot properly be described as a copyright; it is, in fact, a right which can be said to exist only, and can be tested only, by its violation: it is the right which any person designating his wares or commodities by a particular trade-mark, as it is called, has to prevent others from selling wares which are not his, marked with that trade-mark in order to mislead the public, and so incidentally to injure the person who is owner of the The principle will be seen by a comtrade-mark "(m). parison of the following cases. In Burgess v. Burgess (n), where a father had for many years exclusively sold an article under the title of "Burgess's Essence of

Burgess v.
Burgess.
A man cannot be restrained

(k) 2 Eden. 329; Copinger on Copyright, 24-33.

⁽h) 2 Edech. 329, Copinger on Copyright, 24-33.
(l) Prince Albert v. Strange, I Mac. & G. 25; I H. & Tw. I.
(m) Farina v. Silverlock, 6 De G. M. & G. 217. And see Trade-Marks Registration Act, 1875 (38 & 39 Vict. c. 91), and the Amendment Act, 1876 (39 & 40 Vict. c. 33); and In re Mitchell's Trade-Mark, 7 Ch. Div. 36; Singer Manuf. Co. v. Loog, W. N. 1879, p. 152.
(n) 3 De G. M. & G. 897.

Anchovies," the court would not restrain his son from from using his selling a similar article under that name, no fraud own name as being proved. Knight Bruce, L. J., said—"All the article. Queen's subjects have a right, if they will, to manufacture and sell pickles and sauces, and not the less that their fathers had done so before them. All the Queen's subjects have a right to sell these articles in their own names, and not the less so that they bear the same name as their fathers; nor is there anything else that this defendant has done in question before us. He follows the same trade as that his father follows, and has long followed, namely, that of manufacturer and seller of pickles, preserves, and sauces; among them one called 'Essence of Anchovies.' He carries on the trade in his own name, and sells his essence of anchovies as 'Burgess's Essence of Anchovies,' which, in truth, it is. If any circumstance of fraud, now material, had ac- If there be no companied, and were continuing to accompany, the fraud on his case, it would stand very differently. The whole ground of complaint is the great celebrity which, during many years, has been possessed by the elder Burgess's essence of anchovies. That does not give him such an exclusive right, such a monopoly, such a privilege, as to prevent any man from making essence of anchovies, and selling it under his own name" (o). In the Cocks v. case of Cocks v. Chandler (p), the bill was filed by the Chandler—Use of word successor in title of the inventor of a sauce known as "Original" a fraud on the "Reading Sauce," to restrain a rival manufacturer from public. selling his preparation under the name of "The Original Reading Sauce;" and on proof by the plaintiff that he alone was entitled to the original receipt, and that on that ground his sauce had attained a high reputation in the market, an injunction was granted against the

⁽o) See also Christie v. Christie, W. N. 1875, p. 3; Cope v. Evans, L. R. 18 Eq. 138.

⁽p) L. R. 11 Eq. 446; Marshall v. Ross, L. R. 8 Eq. 651; Crawfurd v. Shuttock, 13 Gr. 149; Davis v. Kennedy, 13 Gr. 523.

use by the defendant of the word "original," as being a device to mislead the public (q).

Cairns's and Rolt's Acts .objects of.

Before leaving this branch of the Concurrent Jurisdiction of the Court of Chancery, it is appropriate briefly to mention certain legislative enactments, which (prior to the Judicature Acts, 1873-75), had to a considerable extent increased the power and usefulness of the Court of Chancery, by conferring on it powers heretofore exclusively belonging to the courts of common law.

Lord Cairns's Act,-Equity may give damages where it has a performance.

By Lord Cairns's Act (r), it was enacted that in all cases in which the court had jurisdiction to entertain an application for an injunction against a breach of any jurisdiction to covenant, contract, or agreement, or against the comgrant injunction or specific mission or continuance of any wrongful act, or for the specific performance of any covenant, contract, or agreement, in all these cases it should be lawful for the same court, if it should think fit, to award damages to the party injured cither in addition to, or in substitution for, such injunction, and such damages might be assessed in such manner as the court should direct. By subsequent sections, provision was made for the assessment of damages, and the trial of questions of jury, or direct fact, either by a jury before the court itself, or by the court alone, or for the assessment of damages by a jury before any judge of one of the superior courts of common law, at nisi prius, or at the assizes. or before a sheriff, as is done in writs of inquiry at common law (s).

May assess damages with or without a an issue.

⁽q) See also Raggett v. Findlater, L. R. 17 Eq. 29; Cheavin v. Walker, L. R. 5 Ch. Div. 850; Siegert v. Findlater, 7 Ch. Div. 801; Braham v. Brachim, 7 Ch. Div. 848.

⁽r) 21 & 22 Vict. c. 27. (s) 21 & 22 Vict. c. 27, 88. 2-6. And see Jaques v. Millar, L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 153.

With reference to the construction and application Construction and effect of of this Act, the following points were settled:the Act.

I. That the statute did not extend "the jurisdiction I. Equity of the court to cases where there was a plain common jurisdiction not extended law remedy, and where, before the statute, the court where there was a plain would not have interfered "(t).

common law remedy.

2. "Where a plaintiff came to the court for the 2. Damages specific performance of a contract which could not be where the conperformed at all, there damages could not be given in tract could not be performed lieu of specific performance" (u).

not given

- 3. So, again, there could be no relief in a court of 3. No relief equity "where a bill was filed for damages, and damages mages only were asked only" (v).
- 4. But though as a general rule damages would be 4. Damages when injuncawarded only as incidental to granting specific per-tion not formance or an injunction, yet damages might be given, granted. where the evidence was insufficient to support a case for an injunction (w).
- 5. But the court cannot, in its discretion, give 5. Injunction damages in lieu of an injunction where the plaintiff damages. makes out his right to an injunction (x).
- 6. Where a court had jurisdiction to compel specific 6. Where court might performance of a part of a contract, it had also power compel specific under the statute to award damages for the breach of of one part another part of that contract, in respect of which it of an agreecould not have compelled specific performance. Thus give damages

⁽t) Wicks v. Hunt, Johnson, 380.

⁽u) Per Wood, V.-C., in Middleton v. Magnay, 2 H. & M. 236; Rogers v. Challis, 27 Beav. 175; Scott v. Rayment, L. R. 7 Eq. 112.

⁽v) Middleton v. Magnay, 2 H. & M. 237; Lewers v. Earl of Shaftesbury, L. R. 2 Eq. 270.

⁽w) City of London Brewery Company v. Tennant, L. R. 9 Ch. 212. (x) Krehl v. Burrell, 7 Ch. Div. 551; 10 Ch. Div. 146.

for breach of another part or for the whole.

plaintiff agreed to grant a lease to defendant when and so soon as he, the defendant, should have built a new house on the land; and the defendant agreed to accept such lease when required, and to pull down an old house then standing on the land, and build a new one on the site. It was held that the plaintiff was entitled to damages for the non-building of the house, and to specific performance of the contract to accept the lease. Wood, V.-C., said—"Now, it is perfectly true that I cannot act until I have jurisdiction, and under the existing law, before the passing of this Act, a court of equity had no jurisdiction in respect of a building contract of this description. But it would have had jurisdiction, before the passing of the Act, to compel the defendant to accept a lease on the plaintiff waiving the condition which he for his own benefit inserted—that he should not be called upon to grant a lease until a certain time. The defendant has agreed to accept a lease when required, and the court has therefore jurisdiction. The statute would not apply to a case where the object of the agreement was simply the building of the house under such conditions and on such terms that, it may be assumed, the court could not grant specific performance; and in such a case, a plaintiff could not file a bill to have damages instead of specific performance, because there would be no jurisdiction. But there is a distinct agreement here, not only to build the house, but to accept the lease. The court, having therefore acquired jurisdiction, may give damages, either in addition to or in substitution for. specific performance. The meaning of the statute can only be, that, where the court has jurisdiction in the suit, it may award damages in substitution for specific performance "(y).

⁽y) Soames v. Edge, John. 669; Middleton v. Greenwood, 2 De G. J. & S. 142.

The construction put upon Lord Cairns's Act, limiting and defining the cases in which equity has or has not jurisdiction to give damages remains substantially unaltered by the Judicature Acts, 1873-75.

By Rolt's Act (z), it was enacted, that in all cases Sir John in which any relief or remedy within the jurisdiction Rolt's Act,— Determination of the Court of Chancery was sought in any Chancery of legal questions. cause or matter, whether the title to such relief or remedy was or was not incident to, or dependent upon, a legal right, every question of law or fact cognisable in a court of common law on the determination of which the title to such relief or remedy depended, should be determined by or before the same court; or, when more convenient, an issue or issues might be directed to be tried at the assizes; and in all cases, subject to the court's being of opinion in a matter of concurrent jurisdiction that the case was properly brought into equity (a).

The provisions of this Act have not been substantially altered by the Judicature Acts, 1873-75.

On the other hand, the courts of common law were Injunction at invested with equitable powers, and might grant an common law. injunction as in equity; for by the Common Law Procedure Act, 1854 (b), s. 79, it was enacted that in all cases of breach of contract or other injury, where the party injured was entitled to maintain and had brought an action, he might in like case and manner as thereinbefore provided with respect to mandamus, claim a An action writ of injunction against the repetition or continuance been already of such breach of contract or other injury, or the com-commenced. mittal of any breach of contract or injury of a like

⁽z) 25 & 26 Vict. c. 42.

⁽a) Durell v. Pritchard, L. R. 1 Ch. App. 244. (b) 17 & 18 Vict. c. 125.

kind, arising out of the same contract, or relating to the same property or right; and he might, in the same action, include a claim for damages or other redress (c).

⁽c) Mayall v. Higbey, 31 L. J. Exch. 329 ; Jessel v. Chaplin, 2 Jur. N. S. 931.

CHAPTER XI.

PARTITION.

Another head of Concurrent Jurisdiction is that of partition of real estate, when held by joint-tenants or tenants in common.

The ground of this jurisdiction has been thus stated origin of by Lord Redesdale:—" In the case of partition of an estate, if the titles of the parties are in any degree complicated, the difficulties which have occurred in proceeding at the common law have led to applications to courts of equity for partitions, which are effected by first ascertaining the rights of the several persons interested, and then issuing a commission to make the partition required, and upon return of the commission, and confirmation of that return by the court, the partition is finally completed by mutual conveyances of the allotments made to the several parties (a).

The common law remedy by writ of partition was Writ of parata an early period found inadequate and incomplete, inadequate. on account of the various and complicated interests which in process of time arose out of or attached to the ownership of real estate. Moreover, courts of law were content merely to declare the rights of the parties, and were incapable of effectuating the partition by directing the execution of mutual conveyances. It was for these and other reasons, e.g., the necessity of

⁽a) Mitford on Pleading, 120.

the discovery of titles, the difficulty of making the appropriate and indispensable compensatory adjustments, the peculiar remedial processes of courts of equity, and their ability to clear away all intermediate obstructions against complete justice, that these latter courts assumed a general concurrent jurisdiction with courts of law in all cases of partition. And in so doing they usually followed the analogies of the law; and decreed partition in such cases as the courts of law recognised as fit for their interference. But courts of equity were not, therefore, to be understood as limiting their jurisdiction in partition to cases cognisable or relievable at law; for there was no doubt that they might interfere in cases where a partition would not be at law; as, for instance, where an equitable title was set up (b).

Reversioner cannot maintain suit for partition. A suit for partition cannot be maintained by a person interested as a joint-tenant or tenant in common in reversion; and for this reason, that it would be unreasonable that a reversioner should be permitted to disturb the existing state of things, as where lands in the possession of a tenant for life become on his death divisible among several as tenants in common (c). And of course a bill or action for partition will not lie where the purpose of the action is not partition, but to prove the legal title (d).

Nor person claiming under disputed legal title.

Provisions of Trustee Act, 1850, when persons interested are under incapacity. In suits for partition, difficulties often arose owing to the incapacity of persons interested in the property, which it was desired should be divided. But now, where any decree has been made by the court for a

⁽b) Wills v. Slade, 6 Ves. 498; Cartwright v. Pulteney, 2 Atk. 280.

⁽c) Evans v. Bagshaw, L. R. 8 Eq. 469; L. R. 5 Ch. 340. (d) Giffard v. Williams, L. R. 5 Ch. 546; Slade v. Barlow, L. R. 7 Eq. 296.

partition, or for a sale in lieu of a partition (e), of any lands, the court may declare that any of the parties to the suit, wherein the decree is made, are trustees of such lands, or any part thereof within the meaning of the Trustee Act, 1850; or that the interests of unborn persons who might claim under any party to the suit, or by other ways mentioned in the Act, are the interests of persons who, upon coming into existence, would be trustees within the meaning of the Act; and thereupon the Lord Chancellor, intrusted by the sign manual with the care of the persons and estates of lunatics, may, as to any lunatic or person of unsound mind, or the Court of Chancery may, in other cases, make such orders as to the estates, rights, and interests of such persons, born or unborn, as he or the court might, under the provisions of the Act, make concerning the estates, rights, and interests of trustees born or unborn (f). Accordingly, if any of the persons interested are infants, lunatics, or persons of unsound mind, the court will carry into effect the decree for partition, by making an order vesting their shares in such persons as the court shall direct (q).

Formerly a partition was usually made by a com-Partition, how mission issued to inspect and apportion the estate made. among the several persons entitled. Now, however, it is more usually made upon a reference to chambers, or (but very rarely) by the decree at the hearing.

Where the property is small, and the persons inter- Difficulties, ested are many, the difficulties in the way of carrying where proa partition into effect were often so great, as to render carrying partition into the step the reverse of beneficial. The court in one effect. case (h) directed the partition of a house, and the com-

⁽e) The Partition Act, 1868 (31 & 32 Vict. c. 40), s. 7, amended by the Partition Act, 1876 (39 & 40 Vict. c. 17).

(f) Trustee Act, 1850 (13 & 14 Vict. c. 60), s. 30.

(g) Ibid., ss. 3, 7, 30; Dan. Ch. Pr. 1031.

(h) Turner v. Morgan, 8 Ves. 143.

mission having been executed, an exception was taken by the defendant, on the ground that the commissioners had allotted to the plaintiff the whole stack of chimneys, all the fireplaces, the only staircase, and all the conveniences in the yard. The Lord Chancellor overruled the exception, saying that he did not know how to make a better partition for them; that he granted the commission with great reluctance, but was bound by authority.

Now remedied by sale under Partition Acts, 1868 and 1876.

These difficulties are now in great measure removed by the Partition Act, 1868, amended by the Partition Act, 1876 (i), by which it is provided, that if it appears to the court that, by reason of the nature of the property or of the number of the parties interested, or presumptively interested, or of the absence or disability of some of the parties, or of any other circumstance, a sale of the property and a distribution of the proceeds would be more beneficial than a partition, the court may, if it thinks fit, on the request of any of the parties interested, and notwithstanding the dissent or disability of any others, direct a sale accordingly (j). Also, upon the request of a moiety or upwards of the co-owners, the court is required to direct a sale, unless it sees good cause to the contrary (k).

Sale,—mode of directing.

The sale may be directed on motion upon admissions in the pleadings (l); and usually all the co-owners (other than the party having the conduct of the sale) have leave to bid (m).

⁽i) 39 & 40 Vict. c. 17.

⁽j) 39 & 40 vict. c. 17.
(j) 31 & 32 Vict. c. 40, s. 3; Dan. Ch. Pr. 1019–1022. See Rowe v. Gray, L. R. 5 Ch. Div. 263; Wilkinson v. Joberns, L. R. 16 Eq. 14; Drinkwater v. Ratcliffe, L. R. 20 Eq. 528; Gilbert v. Smith, 8 Ch. Div. 548; II Ch. Div. 78. And see also Gregory Walker's Manual of the Partition Acts, 1868 and 1876.

⁽k) Porter v. Lopes, 7 Ch. Div. 358; Saxton v. Bartley, W. N. 1879, p. 94.

⁽l) Order xl. rule 11; Burnell v. Burnell, 11 Ch. Div. 213.
(m) Verrall v. Cathcart, W. N. 1879, p. 100.

CHAPTER XII.

INTERPLEADER.

Where two or more persons, whose titles were con-Interpleader nected by reason of one being derived from the other, where two or more persons or of both being derived from a common source, claimed claim the the same thing, by different or separate interests, from from a third a third person, and he, not knowing to which of the person. claimants he ought of right to render it, feared he might be hurt by some of them, he might exhibit a bill of interpleader against them. In this bill he must have stated his own rights and their several claims, and prayed that they might interplead, so that the court might adjudge to whom the thing belonged and he might be indemnified. If any suits at law were brought against him, he might also pray that the claimants might be restrained from proceeding till the right was determined (a). And similarly an injunction would be granted in an interpleader suit, to restrain proceedings in another suit relating to the same subject-matter, imperfect in its frame for lack of parties (b),

The remedy by interpleader was not unknown to Interpleader the common law; but it had a very narrow range of at law only in cases of joint purpose and application. The interpleader at law bailment. only existed where there was a joint bailment by both parties (c).

(c) Crawshay v. Thornton, 2 My. & Cr. 1, 21.

⁽a) Mitford on Pleading, 58, 59; Jones v. Thomas, 2 Sin. & Giff. 186. (b) Prudential Assurance Company v. Thomas, L. R. 3 Ch. 74.

The true origin, then, of the jurisdiction in equity over interpleader was, that there was either no remedy at law, or the legal remedy was inadequate in the given case.

Mitchell v. Hayne,—
Plaintiff to a bill of interpleader must have had no personal interest in the subjectmatter.

In order that a party might be entitled to bring a bill for interpleader in equity, it was, however, absolutely essential that he should have no personal interest in the subject-matter of contest. In Mitchell v. Hayne (d), plaintiff was an auctioneer, and had sold an estate for one of the defendants. The other defendant was the purchaser, and had commenced an action against the plaintiff for the deposit; upon which the plaintiff prayed for an interpleader and injunction, offering, at the same time, to pay the deposit money into court, after deducting his commission. The Vice-Chancellor refused the bill, saying, "Interpleader is where the plaintiff is the holder of a stake which is equally contested by the defendants, as to which the plaintiff is wholly indifferent between the parties, and the right to which will be fully settled by interpleader between the defendants "(c).

Crawshay v.
Thornton,—
Plaintiff must
have been
under no
personal
liability.

In the case of Crawshay v. Thornton (f), A. deposited certain iron with B. & Co., who were wharfingers, and afterwards directed them to deliver it to C. C. applied to B. & Co. to know the particulars of the iron held by them on his account; and B. & Co. then wrote a letter to C., saying that in compliance with his request, they annexed a note to the landing weights of the iron transferred into his name by A., and now held by them (B. & Co.) at his (C.'s) disposal. B. & Co. subsequently received notice from D. that the iron belonged to him, and that it had been deposited with A. as an agent for sale, and that he with-

(f) 2 My. & Cr. 1, 19.

⁽d) 2 Sim. & Stu. 63.

⁽e) Lawyston v. Boylston, 2 Ves. Jr. 109. And see Attenborough v. St. Catherine Docks Co., 3 C. T. D. 373, 467.

out authority pledged it to C. B. & Co. then filed a bill of interpleader against C. and D. It was held that they could not maintain a bill of interpleader, for after their letter to C., C. had a right against them independently of the question whether D. was or was not entitled to the iron. The Lord Chancellor said, "The case tendered by every such bill of inter- It was essenpleader ought to be, that the whole of the rights claimed interpleader by the defendants may be properly determined by liti-that the whole of the rights gation between them: and that the plaintiffs are not claimed by under any liabilities to either of the defendants beyond should be those which arise from the title to the property in con- finally determined by the test: because if the plaintiffs have come under any per-litigation. sonal obligation, independently of the question of property, so that either of the defendants may recover against them at law without establishing a right to the property, it is obvious that no litigation between the defendants can ascertain their respective rights as against the plaintiffs: and the injunction, which is, of course, if the case be a proper subject for interpleader, would deprive a defendant having such a case, beyond the question of property, of part of his legal remedy, with the possibility, at least, of failing in the contest with his co-defendant: in which case the injunction would deprive him of a legal right, without affording him any equivalent or compensation."

In regard to bills of interpleader, it was not neces-Interpleader sary to entitle the party to come into equity that the where one title was legal title of the claimants should be both purely legal. was sufficient to give jurisdiction, that the one title was legal, and the other equitable (g). Thus, for instance, if a debt or other claim had been assigned, and a controversy arose between the assignor and the assignee respecting the title, a bill of interpleader might be brought by the debtor to have the point

It and the other equitable.

⁽g) Paris v. Gilham, Coop. 56; Morgan v. Marsack, 2 Mer. 107.

settled to whom he should pay (h). Indeed, where one of the claims was purely equitable, it was formerly indispensable to come into equity; for in such a case there could be no interpleader awarded at But after the Common Law Procedure law (i). Act, 1860, courts of law would on an interpleader issue take into consideration the equitable rights of the parties (i).

No interpleader in independent titles not desame common source.

In the case of adverse independent titles, not depleader in case of adverse rived from the same common source, the party holding the property must, it seems, have defended rived from the himself as well as he could at law; and he was not entitled to the assistance of a court of equity, for that would be to assume the right to try merely legal titles upon a controversy between different parties, where there was no privity of contract between them and the third person who called for the interpleader (k).

Agent could not have interhis principal.

It was a settled rule of law, and of equity also, that not have interpleader against an agent should not be allowed to dispute the title of his principal to property which he had received from or for his principal; or to say that he would hold it for the benefit of a stranger (1). But this doctrine was to be taken with its proper qualifications. For if the principal had created an interest or a lien on the funds in the hands of the agent in favour of a third person, and the nature and extent of that interest or lien was in controversy between the principal and such third person, then the agent might, for his own protection, have filed a bill of interpleader, to compel them

Except where principal had created a lien in favour of a third party.

⁽h) Wright v. Ward, 4 Russ. 215.

⁽i) Bolton v. Williams, 4 Bro. C. C. 309. (j) Rusden v. Pope, L. R. 3 Ex. 269. (k) Pearson v. Cardon, 2 Russ. & M. 606, 610.

⁽¹⁾ Dixon v. Hammond, 2 B. & Ald. 313; Nickolson v. Knowles, 5 Madd. 47.

to litigate and adjust their respective titles to the fund (m).

Again, a tenant could not file a bill of interpleader Tenant could against his landlord on notice of ejectment by a against his stranger under an adverse title to that of the land-landlord, and a stranger lord. The reason was manifest; for upon the defini- claiming by a tion of it, a bill of interpleader was where two persons title. claimed of a third the same debt or the same duty. With regard to the relation of landlord and tenant, the right must have been the object of an ejectment. The law had taken such anxious care to settle the rights arising out of that relation, that the tenant attacked threw himself upon his landlord. He had nothing to do with any claim adverse to his landlord. He put the landlord in his place. If the landlord did not defend for him, he recovered upon his lease a recompense against the landlord. In the case of another person claiming against the title of his landlord, it was clear, unless he derived under the title of the landlord, he could not claim the same debt. The rent due upon the demise was a different demand from that which some other person might have upon the occupation of the premises (n). But equity would, even Cases where a in the case of a tenant, grant relief if the persons tenant might bring a bill of claiming the same rent claimed in privity of con-interpleader. tract or tenure, as in the case of a mortgagor and a mortgagee; of a trustee and a cestui que trust; or where an estate was settled to the separate use of a married woman, of which the tenant had notice, and the husband had been in receipt of the rent (o). In cases of this sort the tenant did not dispute the title of his landlord, but he affirmed that title, and the

⁽m) Smith v. Hammond, 6 Sim. 10; Wright v. Ward, 4 Russ. 215, 220.

⁽n) Dungey v. Angove, 2 Ves. Jr. 310; Cook v. Rosslyn, 1 Giff. 167. (o) Hodges v. Smith, I Cox, 357; Clarke v. Byne, 13 Ves. 383; Johnson v. Atkinson, 3 Anstr. 798.

tenure and contract by which the rent was payable, and put himself upon the mere uncertainty of the person to whom he was to pay the rent.

Sheriff seizing goods could not file a bill of interpleader.

A bill of interpleader could not be filed by a sheriff who seized goods in execution, on account of the existence of adverse claims to the property. And this arose from the principle involved in the definition of an interpleader, "where two persons claimed of a third the same debt, or the same duty;" and the sheriff, as to one of the defendants, admitted himself a wrongdoer, and might be therefore liable to him for damages, as well as for the goods themselves (p). Courts of equity would, however, allow a bill of interpleader to be filed by a sheriff where there were conflicting equitable claims on the property which he had seized (q).

Interpleader, under the Judicature Acts, and certain statutes prior thereto.

And by the statutes I & 2 Will. IV., c. 58, and 23 & 24 Vict., c. 126, the common law courts acquired a larger power to give relief than that which they had at common law. By the former of these Acts the benefit of an interpleader was extended to the sheriff; and by the latter of them, the parties might have interpleader, although their titles were not derived from one common source. And by Order i., Rule 2, of the new Judicature System, it is provided with respect to interpleader, that the procedure and practice used by courts of common law under the two last-mentioned Acts shall apply to all actions in all the divisions of the High Court of Justice. The application is made by the defendant to a judge at chambers, at any time after service of the writ in the action and after the defendant's appearance thereto, but before delivery of his statement of defence. Apparently, therefore, all

⁽p) Slingsby v. Boulton, I V. & B. 335.
(q) Daniell's Ch. Pr. 1416; Tufton v. Harding, 6 Jur. N. S. 116; Hale v. Saloon Omnibus Co., 4 Drew. 492; Dutton v. Furness, 12 Jur. N. S. 386; s. c. 35 Beav. 461.

the old distinctions between law and equity in respect of interpleader have been merged, and the slow and cumbrous procedure in equity has been abolished, and the procedure at law has been adopted,—but law is now compellable (as we have seen) to take notice of all equitable estates and equities (r).

⁽r) See Book ii. of this work, "The Practice in Equity," § 24.

PART IV.

THE AUXILIARY JURISDICTION.

CHAPTER I.

DISCOVERY.

Bill of discovery, nature of. EVERY bill in equity might properly have been deemed a bill of discovery, since it sought a disclosure from the defendant, on his oath, of the truth of the circumstances constituting the plaintiff's case, as propounded in his bill.

But that which was par excellence called a bill of discovery, was a bill which asked no relief, but simply the discovery of facts resting in the knowledge of the defendant, or the discovery of deeds or writings, or other things, in the possession or power of the defendant, in order to maintain the right or title of the party asking it, in some suit or action or other proceeding in another court.

Generally an action must already have been commenced.

In general, it was necessary, in order to maintain a bill of discovery, that an action should have been already commenced in another court, to which the discovery would be auxiliary. There were, however, exceptions to this rule, as where the object of the discovery was to ascertain who was the proper party against whom the suit or action should be brought. But these cases were of rare occurrence (a).

The power of the courts of equity to compel dis-Jurisdiction covery arose principally from the original inability of because at courts of common law to compel a complete discovery law defendant could not be of the material facts in controversy by the oaths of the examined on parties to the suit, and also from their original want of compelled to power to compel the production of deeds, documents, produce documents. writings, and other things which were in the custody or power of one of the parties, and were material to the right, title, or defence of the other. Bills of discovery were greatly favoured in equity, inasmuch as they tended to assist and promote the administration of justice in others, and they would be sustained in all cases where some well-founded objection did not exist against the exercise of the jurisdiction.

The principal grounds upon which a bill of dis-Defences to a covery might have been resisted were as follows:— bill of discovery. I. That the subject was not cognisable in any court of justice. 2. That the court would not lend its aid to obtain a discovery for the particular court for which it was wanted. 3. That the plaintiff was not entitled to the discovery by reason of some personal disability. 4. That the plaintiff had no title to the character in which he sued. 5. That the value of the suit was beneath the dignity of the court. 6. That the plaintiff had no interest in the subject-matter, or title to the discovery required, or that an action would not lie for that for which it was wanted. 7. That the defendant was not answerable to the plaintiff, but that some other person had a right to call for the discovery. 8. That the policy of the law exempted the defendant from the

⁽a) See Angell v. Angell, I Sim. & Stu. 83; City of London v. Levy, 8 Ves. 404.

discovery. Q. That the defendant was not bound to discover his own title. 10. That the discovery was 11. That the defendant was not material in the suit. a mere witness. 12. That the discovery called for would subject the defendant to a penalty, or forfeiture, or to a prosecution.

Plaintiff seeking discovery must have shown a title.

Heir-at-law during ancestor's life discovery.

But heir-intail was entitled to see title-deeds.

It must, therefore, have clearly appeared upon the face of the bill that the plaintiff had a title to the discovery which he sought; a mere stranger could not maintain a bill for the discovery of the title of another person. Hence an heir-at-law could not, during the could not have life of his ancestor, maintain a bill for a discovery of facts or deeds material to the ancestor's estate, for he had no present title whatsoever, but only the possibility of a future title. An heir-at-law had no right even to the inspection of deeds in the possession of a devisee, unless he was an heir-in-tail, in which latter case he was entitled to see the deeds creating the estate tail. but no further.

The plaintiff asking for discovery must have stated a case which would be a good ground of action or defence.

In the next place, the party must not only have shown that he had an interest in the subject-matter of the bill, but he must also have stated a case which would, if he was the plaintiff at law, constitute a good ground of action; or if he was the defendant at law, show a good ground of defence in answer to the action. If it was clear that the action or defence was not maintainable at law, courts of equity would not entertain a bill for any discovery in support of it, since the discovery could not have been material, but must have been useless (b).

At least, a primâ facte case.

If the point, however, was fairly open to doubt or controversy, courts of equity would grant the discovery,

⁽b) See Wallis v. Duke of Portland, 3 Ves. Jr. 494; Lord Kensington v. Mansell, 13 Ves. 240.

and leave it to courts of law to adjudicate upon the legal rights of the party seeking the discovery (c).

Courts of equity would not entertain a bill for a No discovery discovery to aid the promotion or defence of any action in aid of suits which was not purely of a civil nature. Thus, they civil. would not compel a discovery in aid of a criminal prosecution, for it was against the genius of the common law to compel a party to accuse himself; and it was against the general principles of equity to aid in the enforcement of penalties and forfeitures. Thus in a recent case (d), where, on a bill filed by the United States of America, as the successors to the rights and Or where it property of the late Confederate States of America, a forfeiture. praying for an account and relief in respect of moneys received by the defendant, as agent of the Confederate States, the defendant pleaded that by a law of the United States, the property of all persons who had acted as agents for the Confederate States was liable to confiscation, and that he could not answer without exposing himself to such confiscation, it was held that the plea was a good plea as to the discovery.

Courts of equity would not entertain a bill for a dis- No discovery covery to assist a suit or action in another court, if the in aid of another court latter was of itself competent to exercise the same which could exercise the jurisdiction. But although a party might afterwards same jurisdichave examined his opponent at law under 14 & 15 Except where Vict., c. 99, s. 2, and 17 & 18 Vict., c. 126, ss. 51, 52, the other court had not and the courts of common law could under these that power statutes have compelled the production of documents, yet a plaintiff or defendant at law was still entitled to come to equity for discovery in aid of his action or defence; and this was put upon the ground that equity having once acquired jurisdiction over the subject-

⁽c) Thomas v. Tyler, 3 Younge & Col., Ex. 255.
(d) United States of America v. M'Rae, L. R. 3 Ch. 79

matter, could not lose that jurisdiction by the mere fact of the common law courts also being subsequently invested with the same powers (e).

No discovery in aid of arbitration. Courts of equity would not entertain bills for a discovery in aid of a controversy pending before arbitrators, for they were not the regular tribunals authorised to administer justice; and being judges of the parties' own choice, the parties had to submit to the inconveniences incidental thereto (f). But courts of equity would grant a discovery in aid of a compulsory reference to arbitration ordered in an action (g).

Except arbitration were compulsory.

Married woman could not be compelled to disclose facts which might charge her husband.

No discovery would be compelled where it was against the policy of the law from the particular relation of the parties. Thus, no discovery would lie against a married woman to compel her to disclose facts which might charge her husband. Nor would a person standing in the relation of professional confidence towards another be compelled to disclose the secrets of his client.

Arbitrators not compellable to state the ground of their award. In general, arbitrators were not compellable by a bill of discovery to disclose the grounds upon which they made their award, because arbitrators were not obliged by law to give any reason for their award. But if they were charged with corruption, fraud, or partiality, they must have answered that.

No discovery against a witness, It was ordinarily a good objection to a bill of discovery that it sought the discovery from a defendant, who was a mere witness, and had no interest in the suit; for, as he might be examined in the suit as a witness, there was no ground to make him a party to

⁽e) Lovell v. Galloway, 17 Beav. 1; British Emp. Shipping Co. v. Somes, 3 K. & J. 433.

⁽f) Street v. Rigby, 6 Vesey, 821.

⁽g) British Emp. Shipping Co. v. Somes, 3 K. & J. 333.

a bill of discovery, since his answer would not be evidence against any other person in the suit (h).

A defendant might object to a bill of discovery, that No discovery he was a bonâ fide purchaser of the property for a fide purchaser valuable consideration, without notice of the plaintiff's for value without notice. claim. To entitle himself to this protection, however, the purchase must not only have been bonû fide, and without notice, and for a valuable consideration, but the purchase-money must have been paid (i).

And not only was a bonû fide purchaser for value or as against without notice protected in equity against a plaintiff a purchaser with notice seeking to overturn that title; but a purchaser with from such bond fide notice, under a boná fide purchaser without notice, was purchaser. entitled to the like protection. For otherwise, it would have happened that the title of such a bonû fide purchaser would have become unmarketable in his hands. and consequently he might have been subjected to great losses, if not utter ruin.

Since the fusion effected by the Judicature Acts, Discovery 1873-75, it may be considered that the jurisdiction in under the Judicature Acts. equity for discovery merely, that is to say, for discovery in aid of some action in another court or another division of the court, has ex hypothesi vel definitione absolutely and altogether ceased, inasmuch as every court or division has now the same power as any other court or division of compelling discovery, whether by interrogatories, or by production and inspection of documents, or by inspection of property or otherwise. chapter on discovery, as altered, has been retained in this edition, as likely to prove useful in assisting the student to determine whether or not, or subject to

⁽h) Dan. Ch. Pr. 255.
(i) See Stanhope v. Earl Verney, 2 Eden, 81; Willoughby v. Willoughby, I Term R. 763.

what (if any) restrictions, he may now have discovery in any of the modern ways provided by the New Procedure, and as also furnishing or suggesting various objections to the discovery which may be endeavoured to be obtained by the other side (j).

⁽j) See Orr v. Diaper, L. R. 4 Ch. Div. 92. And compare Dixon v. Enoch, L. R. 13 Eq. 400; Carver v. Pinto Leite, L. R. 7 Ch. App. 90.

CHAPTER II.

BILLS TO PERPETUATE TESTIMONY, AND TO TAKE EVIDENCE DE BENE ESSE.

I. The object of bills to perpetuate testimony was to I. Bills to perpreserve and perpetuate evidence when it was in danger mony. of being lost, before the matter to which it related To preserve evidence in could be made the subject of judicial investigation, danger of being lost Bills of this sort were obviously indispensable for the before a quespurposes of public justice, as it might be utterly im-tion could be litigated. possible for a party to bring his rights presently to a judicial decision; and unless, in the meantime, he might perpetuate the proofs of those rights, they were in danger of being lost without any default on his side.

The jurisdiction which courts of equity exercised to The objection perpetuate testimony was open to one great objection. was, that the The depositions were not published until after the death were not published till of the witnesses. The testimony, therefore, had this after death of infirmity, that it was not given under the sanction of witness. those penalties which the law attaches to the crime of perjury. It was for this reason chiefly that courts of equity did not generally entertain such bills, unless where it was absolutely necessary to prevent a failure of justice (a).

If, therefore, it were possible that the matter in con- If matter troversy could be made the subject of immediate judi- could be at once litigated,

⁽a) Angell v. Angell, I Sim. & Stu. 83.

equity refused to perpetuate testimony.

But equity would not refuse if the matter could not by any means be at once litigated.

cial investigation, by the party who sought to perpetuate the testimony, courts of equity would not entertain a bill for the purpose. For the party, under such circumstances, had it fully in his power to terminate the controversy by commencing the proper action; and therefore there was no reason for giving him the advantage of deferring his proceedings to a future time, and for substituting written depositions for vivâ voce evidence (b). But, on the other hand, if the party who filed the bill could by no means bring the matter in controversy into immediate judicial investigation (which might have happened when his title was in remainder), or if he himself was in actual possession of the property, with reference to which he sought to perpetuate the testimony, in either of these cases equity would entertain a suit for that purpose (c).

Equity would evidence of a right which might be barred.

would entitle a plaintiff to

Under 5 & 6 Vict., c. 69, every species of right entitled.

On the principle that equity, if possible, will do not perpetuate nothing in vain, the court declined to perpetuate testimony in support of a right of the plaintiff, which might be immediately barred by the defendant, as in the case of a remainder-man filing a bill against the What interest tenant-in-tail in possession (d). As to the question what amount of interest the plaintiff must have posfile such a bill. sessed in order to entitle him to file a bill to perpetuate testimony, the law was regulated by 5 & 6 Vict., c. 69, by which it was enacted that any person who would, under the circumstances alleged by him to exist, become entitled, upon the happening of any future event, to any honour, title, dignity or office, or to any estate or interest in any property, real or personal, the right or claim to which could not by him be brought to trial before the happening of such event, should be entitled to file a bill in Chancery, to perpetuate any

(d) Dursley v. Fitzhardinge, 6 Ves. 261.

⁽b) Ellice v. Roupell (No. 1), 32 Beav. 299.

⁽c) St. 1508; Earl Spencer v. Peek, L. R. 3 Eq. 415.

testimony which might be material for establishing such claim or right (e).

Before this statute, a mere expectancy or spes suc-Before the cessionis, as that of an heir-at-law, was not considered statute a mere expectancy or sufficient to sustain a bill to perpetuate testimony, spes successionis was not though any interest, however small or remote, even enough. though contingent, which the law would recognise, entitled a party to the relief (f). So also, before the And there statute, a bill to perpetuate testimony was only allowed been some where some right to property was involved (a).

right to pro-

II. There was another species of bill, having a close II. Bills to take testimony analogy to that to perpetuate testimony, and often con- de bene esse. founded with it, but which, in reality, stood upon different considerations. These were bills to take testimony de bene esse, and bills to take the testimony of persons resident abroad, to be used in suits actually pending in the courts. There was this broad distinction How disbetween bills of this sort and bills to perpetuate testi-from bills to mony, that the latter were, and could be, brought by perpetuate the latter were, and could be, brought by testimony. persons only who were in possession, under their title, and who could not sue at law, and thereby have an opportunity to examine their witnesses in such suit, while bills to take testimony de bene esse might be brought, not only by persons in possession, but by persons who were out of possession, in aid of the trial at There was also another distinction between them. which was that bills de bene esse could be brought only when an action was then depending, and not before (h), while bills to perpetuate testimony were only allowed where no action was pending, or could be commenced.

⁽e) Campbell v. Earl of Dalhousie, L. R. I H. L. Sc. App. 462. (f) Dursley v. Fitzhardinge, 6 Ves. 251.

⁽g) Townshend Peerage Case, 10 Cl. & Fin. 289. (h) St. 1513; Angell v. Angell, 1 Sim. & Stu. 83.

Grounds for exercising the jurisdiction.

The court would make an order for the examination of witnesses de bene esse, where important witnesses were so old and infirm that they could not safely travel, or they were in a precarious state of health, or they were abroad at the time of trial,—in short, the court would give permission for such an examination of witnesses wherever the justice of the case appeared to require it (j).

The Judicature Acts,—effect of.

The equity jurisdiction, with reference to testimony de bene esse, became of considerably less practical importance after the courts of common law were invested with ample powers for that purpose by the statutes 13 Geo. III., c. 63, s. 44, and I Will. IV., c. 22, s. I. But it cannot be said of bills to perpetuate testimony that they have since the Judicature Acts, 1873-75, ceased to be necessary; on the contrary, they appear to remain unaffected by the Judicature Acts, excepting to this trivial extent, that they would now be called actions instead of bills, and might be commenced either at law or in equity; and, of course, in lieu of a bill or action to take evidence de bene esse, there could now be a mere order to examine de bene esse, obtained (under Order xxxvii. Rule 4) from the court or judge on a summary application in the pending cause or matter; but the grounds or occasions of the jurisdiction are no way altered.

⁽i) Daniell's Ch. Pr. 816.

CHAPTER III.

BILLS QUIA TIMET AND BILLS OF PEACE.

I. BILLS quia timet were in the nature of writs of I. Quia timet. prevention, to accomplish the ends of precautionary justice. The party sought the aid of the court because In order to he feared (quia timet) some future probable injury to prevent wrongs. his rights or interests, and not because an injury had already occurred which required compensation or other relief. The nature of the relief given by courts of equity was dependent on circumstances. They inter- Appointment fered sometimes by the appointment of a receiver of of receivers. rents or other income, sometimes by an order to pay a pecuniary fund into court, sometimes by directing Directing security to be given, or money to be paid over, and security to be given. sometimes by the mere issuing of an injunction, or other remedial process, thus adapting their relief to Granting the precise nature of the particular case and the reme-injunctions. dial justice required by it.

II. Bills of peace bore some resemblance to bills II. Bills of quia timet. Bills quia timet, however, were distin-distinguished guished from bills of peace in several respects; because from bills quia timet were always used as a preventive process, before a suit was actually instituted, while bills of peace, although sometimes brought before any suit was instituted to try a right, were most generally brought after the right had been tried at law.

By a bill of peace was to be understood a bill Bills of peace, brought by a person to establish and perpetuate a right —their object.

which he claimed, and which, from its very nature, might be controverted by different persons, at different times, and by different actions; or where separate attempts had already been unsuccessfully made to overthrow the same right, and justice required that the party should be quieted in the right, if it was already sufficiently established, or if it should be sufficiently established under the direction of the court. The obvious design of such a bill was to secure repose from perpetual litigation, and was founded on that general doctrine of public policy, which, in some form or other, may be found in the jurisprudence of every civilised country, that an end ought to be put to litigation, and above all to hopeless and vexatious litigation (Interest reipublice ut sit finis litium).

Bills of peace,
—nature of
cases for.

One class of cases, to which this remedial process was properly applied, was where there was one general right to be established against a great number of persons. And it might be resorted to either where one person claimed or defended a right against many, or where many claimed or defended a right against one (a). Courts of equity having a power to bring all the parties before them, would, in order to prevent multiplicity of suits, at once interpose, and proceed to the ascertainment of the general right; and if it were necessary, they would ascertain it by an action or issue at law, and then make a decree finally binding on all the parties.

Bills of peace,
—instances of.

Bills of this nature might have been brought by a lord against his tenants to recover an encroachment made under colour of a right of common; by a party interested, to establish his right to a toll due by custom, or to the profits of a fair. So where a party claimed to be in possession of a right of fishing for a consider-

⁽a) Sheffield Waterworks v. Yeomans, L. R. 2 Ch. 8.

able distance in a river, and the riparian proprietors set up several adverse rights, he might have a bill of peace against all of them to establish his right and to quiet his possession (b). So in The Sheffield Water-Sheffield Waterworks v. works v. Yeomans (c), a bill having been filed against Yeomans,— Y. and five other defendants, on behalf of themselves defendants, and all other the persons named in certain alleged with identical question of certificates, praying in effect that the certificates (about law against 1500 in number, held by different owners) might be declared void, and be delivered up to be cancelled, and new valid certificates issued in lieu thereof, the question as to the validity of these certificates being the only question to be decided in the suit,—it was held that, though the claims of the defendants were not identical. yet, as they all involved the same question of validity, the bill would lie, as being in the nature of a bill of peace.

Another class of cases, and one in which bills of Where a party peace were more ordinarily resorted to, was where the has conclusively estabplaintiff had, after repeated and satisfactory trials, lished a right, and is established his right at law, and yet was in danger of threatened further litigation and obstruction to his right from new with fresh litigation. attempts to controvert it. Thus, in the case of Earl of Bath v. Sherwin (d), where the title to land had been five several times tried in an ejectment, and five Ejectment,several verdicts had been given in favour of the plaintiff, repetition of, growing opthe House of Lords granted a perpetual injunction, pressive. upon the ground that it was the only adequate means of suppressing vexatious litigation, the expense and continuance of which was doing irreparable mischief. Courts of equity would not, however, have interfered in such cases before a trial at law, nor until the right had been satisfactorily established at law; latterly,

⁽b) Mayor of York v. Pilkington, I Atk. 282.

⁽c) L. R. 2 Ch. 8. (d) Prec. Ch, 261; 4 Bro. P. C. 373.

however, by Rolt's Act (e), the Court of Chancery might in its discretion either direct an issue to be tried at the assizes or at nisi prius, where the circumstances rendered such a course advisable, or might itself decide the question of law or fact.

No perpetual injunction in favour of a private right in contravention of a public right.

It seems that courts of equity would not, upon a bill of this nature, decree a perpetual injunction for the establishment of the right of a party who claimed in contravention of a public right, as if he claimed an exclusive right to a highway, or to a common navigable river; for it was said, that would be to enjoin all the people of the state or country. But the true principle was, that courts of equity would not, in such cases, upon principles of public policy, intercept the assertion of public rights, and that in fact the right claimed was impossible in law.

Judicature Acts,—effect of. It does not appear that bills quia timet are in the slightest degree affected by the Judicature Acts, 1873-75, or the rules thereunder, excepting to this merely nominal extent, that they would now be called actions in the nature of bills quia timet; and while the equity jurisdiction remains, it is now shared in by the Common Law divisions. The like remarks apply also to bills of peace.

⁽e) 25 & 26 Vict. c. 42, s. 2.

CHAPTER IV.

CANCELLING AND DELIVERY UP OF DOCUMENTS.

THE Court of Chancery frequently cancelled, or re-Instrument scinded, or ordered to be delivered up, instruments of ordered to be delivered up a distressful or obnoxious character, and that whether when? they were voidable, or were in fact void. The jurisdiction exercised in cases of this sort was founded upon the administration of a protective or preventive justice, in analogy to the principle quia timet, that is, for fear that such instruments might afterwards be vexatiously or injuriously used, when the evidence to impeach them was lost, or that they might be already clouding the title or interest of the party (a).

Upon such an application to the court, it was not a Granting of matter of absolute right in the plaintiff, but it was a such a decree matter of judicial discretion for the court, to grant or to of right, but refuse the relief prayed, according to its own notion of discretion in what was proper. Thus, a court of equity would some- the court. times refuse to decree specific performance of an agreement, and, at the same time, might decline to order the agreement to be delivered up, cancelled, or rescinded; and, again, the court might order an agreement to be rescinded or cancelled upon the application of the one party, and yet decline to interfere at the instance of the other.

⁽a) Cooper v. Joel, 27 Beav. 313; Williams v. Bull, 32 Beav. 574; Onions v. Cohen, 2 H. & M. 354; Peake v. Highfield, 1 Russ. 559.

Voluntary deed or agreement, not ordinarily relieved against.

For example, voluntary agreements, although free from fraud, were not enforceable in a court of equity, and yet they would not ordinarily be set aside by the court, being free from fraud. If a man would improvidently bind himself in a voluntary deed, and not reserve a liberty to himself by a power of revocation, a court of equity, as was quaintly stated in an old case, would not loose the fetters he had put on himself, but would leave him to lie down under his own folly (b). this doctrine has never been narrowed by the later decisions, the absence of a power of revocation in a voluntary deed not throwing upon the person seeking to uphold the deed the onus of proving in the first instance that such a power was intentionally excluded by the donor (c). And even in those cases in which the court would grant relief, it imposed such terms as it thought fit upon the plaintiff, upon the maxim, he who seeks equity must do equity; and if he refused to comply with such terms, his bill was dismissed.

If court granted relief, it did so on terms.

> A party had a right to come into equity to have agreements, deeds, or securities cancelled, rescinded, or delivered up, where he had a defence to them good in equity, but not capable of being made available at law.

instrument in equity, though not at law.

I. Voidable instruments, -

celled.

Where plaintiff had good

defence to an

Courts of equity would also, in general, set aside and (a.) When can- cancel agreements and securities which were voidable merely, and not void, under the following circumstances :---

Four groups of cases.

I. Where there was some actual fraud in the party defendant, in which the party plaintiff had not participated.

⁽b) See Villers v. Beaumont, I Vern. 101; Bill v. Cureton, 2 My. & K. 503; Petre v. Espinasse, 2 My. & K. 496. (c) Hall v. Hall, L. R. 8 Ch. App. 430; and distinguish Coutts v.

Acworth, L. R. 8 Eq. 558; Wollaston v. Tribe, L. R. 9 Eq. 44.

- 2. Where there was some constructive fraud against public policy, and the party plaintiff had not participated therein.
- 3. Where there was some constructive fraud against public policy, and although the party plaintiff had participated therein, yet public policy would have been defeated by allowing the instrument to stand.
- 4. Where there was some constructive fraud in both parties, but they were not both of them in pari delicto.

The first two of these four groups of cases occasioned Illustrations little difficulty to the court; it was manifestly a dictate of the four groups. of natural justice, that a party ought not to be permitted to avail himself of an instrument procured by his own actual or constructive fraud, to the prejudice of a third person not a party to the fraud.

The third group of cases comprised, c.g., gaming securities, which would be decreed to be delivered up, notwithstanding both parties had participated in the fraud, because public policy would be best served by such a course (d).

The fourth group of cases comprised, e.g., cases in which the party seeking relief had acted under circumstances of oppression, imposition, hardship, or other undue influence, arising either from a great inequality between the ages or conditions of the respective parties, or from some other like occasion.

On the other hand, where the party seeking relief I. Voidable was the sole guilty party, or where he had participated instruments (continued),—equally and deliberately in the fraud, or where the (b.) When not

⁽d) Earl of Milltown v. Stewart, 3 Mylne & Craig, 18; W--- v. B--, 32 Beav. 574; Quarrier v. Colston, I Phillips, Ch. R. 147.

agreement which he wanted to set aside was founded on illegality, immorality, or some base or unconscionable conduct on his own part; in such cases, courts of equity would leave him to the consequences of his own iniquity, and would decline to assist him to escape from the toils which he had studiously prepared for others, or whereby he had sought to violate with impunity the interests or the morals of society (e).

II. Void instruments, difficulty with. Questions often occurred how far courts of equity would or ought to interfere to direct instruments to be delivered up and cancelled, which were utterly void, and not merely voidable. The doubt, in the first place was, whether, the instrument being utterly void and incapable of being enforced even at law, the remedial justice of courts of law to protect the party was not adequate and complete, and therefore obviated the necessity of the interposition of courts of equity; and, in the next place, the doubt was, whether the more appropriate remedy would not be the granting a perpetual injunction to restrain the use of the instrument (f).

(a.) When delivered up, and upon what entertained upon this subject, they were put to rest by the more modern decisions, and the jurisdiction of equity to order a delivery up of void documents was in these same decisions fully established, in all cases in which the delivery up of the document might help to prevent the perpetration of some further wrong (g).

The jurisdiction in these cases was founded on the principle of equity that it was better to prevent than to relieve. If an instrument was of such turpitude that it ought not to be used or enforced, it was against

⁽e) Franco v. Bolton, 3 Ves. Jr. 386, 372; St. John v. St. John, 11 Ves. 535, 536; Ayerst v. Jenkins, L. R. 16 Eq. 275.
(f) Hilton v. Barrow, 1 Ves. Jr. 284; Ryan v. Mackmath, 3 Bro. C.

C. 15, 16.
(g) Mr. Swanston's note to Davis v. Duke of Marlborough, 2 Swans.
157.

conscience for the party holding it to retain it, since he could only retain it for some sinister purpose. If it was a negotiable instrument, it might also have been used for a fraudulent or improper purpose to the injury of some one or other. If it was a deed purporting to convey lands or other hereditaments, its existence in an uncancelled state necessarily had a tendency to throw a cloud upon the title. If it was a written agreement, solemn or otherwise, while it existed it was always liable to be applied to improper purposes, and it might be vexatiously litigated at a distance of time, when the proper evidence to repel the claim might have been lost or obscured (h).

But where the illegality of the agreement, deed, or (b.) When not other instrument appeared upon the face of it, so that delivered up, and upon what its nullity could admit of no doubt, and its capacity grounds. therefore to be made the means of perpetrating some further wrong was wholly paralysed, there was not the same reason for the interference of a court of equity, to direct it to be cancelled or delivered up. In such a case there could be no danger that the lapse of time would deprive the party of his full means of defence; nor could such a paper throw a cloud upon any title, or diminish any one's security, or be used as a means of vexatious litigation, or for any other or sensible injury. And, accordingly, it was fully established that in such cases courts of equity would not interpose their authority to order the delivery up of the void instrument (i).

Have the Judicature Acts, 1873-75, in any material Judicature respect altered the jurisdiction in equity as regards Acts, effect

⁽h) Bromley v. Holland, 7 Ves. 20, 21; Kemp v. Prior, Ves. 248, 249.

⁽i) Simpson v. Lord Howden, 3 Mylne & Cr. 97; Bromley v. Holland, 7 Ves. 16; Threfall v. Lunt, 7 Sim. 627; Hurd v. Bilinton, 6 Gr. 145.

the cancellation of voidable and the delivery up of void instruments? Every ground of defence and every variety of relief and of protection and prevention being now equally available in, and equally procurable from, all the divisions of the High Court of Justice, as well the Common Law as the Chancery Divisions, it is clear that the jurisdiction in equity in such matters, so far as it survives, is no longer either exclusive or auxiliary, but is strictly speaking concurrent, although (for reasons of convenience) it is by the Judicature Act, 1873 (j), assigned to the Chancery Division as portion of its exclusive jurisdiction; but the grounds of the jurisdiction in equity do not appear to be otherwise materially altered.

⁽j) Sect. 34, sub-sect. 3.

CHAPTER V.

BILLS TO ESTABLISH WILLS.

Although courts of equity had no general jurisdiction Court of Proover wills, the proper court having been as regards per-bate. sonalty the Ecclesiastical Court, and latterly the Court with wills inof Probate its successor (a), and as regards realty the Court of Common Pleas or of the Queen's Bench, and latterly (upon citation of the heir and devisee) the Court of Probate (b), yet whenever a will came incidentally into question before courts of equity, as when these courts were called upon to execute the trusts of the will, they necessarily acquired some jurisdiction regarding wills (c). In such a case, if the validity of the will was admitted, or already established elsewhere, the courts of equity acted upon it to the fullest extent; but if the parties did not admit the validity of the will, and the same had not been established elsewhere, the court of equity in which the cause was depending would have caused the validity of the will to be established and for that purpose would either have directed an issue or issues to be tried at the assizes, and upon the finding, or ultimate finding, would have declared the will established, or would itself have tried the question and established the will on its own finding, which latter course was called proving the will in Chancery per testes (d); and if the will

cidentally.

⁽a) 20 & 21 Vict. c. 77, ss. 61, 62. (b) (c) Sheffield v. Duchess of Buckinghamshire, 1 Atk. 630. (d) See also Rolt's Act, 25 & 26 Vict. c. 42. (b) Ibid.

were once established, a perpetual injunction would have been decreed against the heir.

Devisee might come into equity to establish a will against heir-at-law.

But further, it was often the principal object of a suit in equity, as when brought by devisees, to establish the validity of the will, being a will of real estate, and to obtain thereupon a perpetual injunction against the heir-at-law, to prevent him from contesting its validity in future (e). In such cases the jurisdiction exercised by courts of equity was analogous to that exercised in cases of bills quia timet, and was founded upon the like considerations, in order to give security and repose to titles, while the evidence for them was And their jurisdiction was assumed because abundant. the devisee had no power to actively litigate the validity of the will at law, but was obliged to wait until the heir-at-law commenced an ejectment at law, which action the heir might indeed commence at once, but might also put off until the evidence in support of the will was grown obscure.

Even though the heir-at-law had brought no ejectment.

Accordingly, in the case of Boyse v. Rossborough (f), it was decided that a devisee in possession was entitled to have the will established against the heir-at-law of the testator, although the heir had brought no action of ejectment against the devisee, although no trusts were declared by the will, and although it was not necessary to administer the estate under the direction of the Court of Chancery. And it was further deter-Devisee might mined, that the Court of Chancery had power to establish a will against parties claiming under a prior will, and disputing the plaintiff's claim, a devisee being entitled to have the will established, and his title quieted

establish a will against all setting up an adverse right.

⁽e) Bootle v. Blundell, 19 Ves. 494, 509. (f) Kay, 71; I K. & J. 124; 3 De G. M. & G. 817; 6 H. L. Cas. I.

not only as against the heir but against all persons setting up adverse rights (g).

But, on the other hand, the heir-at-law could not The heir-atcome into a court of equity excepting by consent of law could only the devisee to have the validity of the will tried. He equity by could not come into equity unless with such consent, because he had a legal remedy by ejectment: if there were any impediments to the proper trial of the merits of such an ejectment, he might have come into equity to have them removed, e.g., upon a bill for discovery (h). And latterly, on a bill by an heir, praying an issue devisavit vel non, for the purpose of obtaining incidental relief, the court might, under Rolt's Act (i), s. 2, have determined the question itself, or in its discretion might have directed an issue to be tried at law, and in these cases the heir was entitled as of right to a trial by jury (i).

The facilities of proving a will in the Probate Proof of will Division are now very great. When the will has the in Court of Probate, usual attestation clause, it is proved by the simple effect of: oath of the executor, that he believes the will to be the true last will: but when the will has not that attestation clause, then in addition to the executor's oath to the effect aforesaid, there is required also from one of the subscribing witnesses an affidavit of due execution by the testator; and probate in either of these forms is called probate in common form. Pro- (1.) When will bate in solemn form is where both the attesting wit- is proved in solemn form; nesses are sworn and examined, and other corroborative evidence is taken, in the presence of the widow and next of kin, including the heir. When the will has once been proved in solemn form, the probate is

⁽g) Lovett v. Lovett, 3 K. & J. I.

⁽h) Sm. Man. 409. (i) 25 & 26 Vict. c. 42. (j) Dan. Ch. Prac. 938, 945; Bunks v. Goodfellow, 40 L. J. Ch. 511.

not only sufficient but conclusive proof of the will (k); (2.) When will but when the probate has been in common form, and 18 proved in common form, in some subsequent action affecting real estate it is necessary to establish the devise, the plaintiff gives to the defendant ten days at least before the trial notice that he intends using at the trial the probate, and thereupon such probate becomes sufficient evidence, unless the defendant within four days after receiving the notice gives a counter-notice to the effect that he disputes the devise (l); and in that latter case, it would be necessary to prove the will as a substantive independent fact, in accordance with the ordinary rules of evidence.

Allen v. M'Pherson, the facts of. and decision

In connection with the jurisdiction in equity to establish wills, and the facilities that are now afforded in the Court of Probate in proving a will, reference should be made to the two cases of Allen v. M'Pherson (m), and Meluish v. Milton (n). In the former of these two cases, it appeared that a testator by his will and certain codicils thereto gave R. A. large bequests, and by a final codicil revoked all these bequests and substituted for them a small weekly allowance for R. A.'s life only. The will and all the codicils were admitted to probate in the Ecclesiastical Court (being the then Court of Probate). Subsequently to such probate, R. A. filed his bill in the Court of Chancery, alleging that the testator had executed the last codicil under the undue influence of the residuary legatee, who had falsely represented R. A.'s character to the testator, and further alleging that it had not been open to him in the Ecclesiastical Court to take objection to the validity of such codicil on that ground, and praying that the residuary legatee might be declared a trustee for R. A. to the extent of the revoked bequests. But it was

⁽k) 20 & 21 Vict. c. 77, s. 62.

⁽m) 1 H. L. Ca. 191.

⁽l) 20 & 21 Viet. c. 77, s. 64. (n) L. R. 3 Ch. Div. 27.

held, that the Court of Chancery had no jurisdiction in the matter.

And in the case of Meluish v. Milton, supra, it Meluish v. appeared that the testator made a will giving all his mitton, the facts of, and property to the defendant (whom he described as his decision in. wife), and also appointing her sole executrix. proved the will in the Court of Probate. The heir-atlaw and sole next of kin of the testator subsequently filed his bill against the defendant, alleging that the defendant was not the testator's lawful wife, and that she had obtained the property by fraudulently deceiving the testator on that head, and praying that she might be declared a trustee of the property for him. But the court (James, Mellish, and Baggalay, L. J.J.) held that the Court of Chancery had no jurisdiction to entertain the case, which was exclusively within the jurisdiction of the Court of Probate.

The two last-mentioned cases appear to be con-The present clusive against the jurisdiction of the Chancery Division jurisdiction of the High Court, as regards wills and codicils dealing division. with personal estate (with or without real estate), or containing even an appointment of an executor, although not otherwise purporting to deal with personal estate: in all these cases, the Court of Probate has jurisdiction. But that court has no jurisdiction, ever since the Judicature Acts, 1873-75 (o), in the matter of wills not dealing with personal estate and not containing any appointment of executors, but dealing with real estate only: Consequently, in the case of a will of real estate only, the rule contained in Boyse v. Rossborough, supra, would appear still to hold good, and not to be affected by the cases of Allen v. M'Pherson, and Meluish v. Milton, supra, so that in this case the

⁽o) See Act 1873, s. 34. and Act 1875, s. 11, sub-sect. 3.

Chancery Division of the High Court would still have jurisdiction to establish wills; and in a very recent case (p), Jessell, M.R., said that a judge of the Chancery Division (or, in fact, of any Division) of the High Court had, under the Judicature Acts, jurisdiction to grant probate, but that (for the reasons there stated) it would not be using a sound discretion to exercise the jurisdiction (q).

⁽p) Pinney v. Hunt, L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 98. (q) L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 101.

CHAPTER VI.

"NE EXEAT REGNO."

THE writ of ne exeat regno was a prerogative writ, which To prevent issued, as its name imports, to prevent a person from a person leaving the realm; in its origin, it was only applied to great political objects and purposes of state, for the safety and benefit of the realm; and such having been the character of its origin, it is at the present day applied in favour of the subject and his private rights with great caution and jealousy.

In general, it may be stated, that the writ of ne General rule, exeat regno would not be granted unless in cases of —granted only equitable debts and claims, in respect of which it was equitable debts. in the nature of equitable bail. If therefore the debt was one demandable at law, the writ would be refused; for in such a case the remedy at law was open to the party.

However, to the general rule, that the writ of ne exeat Two excepregno lay only in respect of equitable debts and claims, tions,—there were two recognised exceptions, that is to say,—

I. Where alimony had been decreed to a wife, it r. In cases of would be enforced against a husband by a writ of ne alimony decreed, where exeat regno, if he was about to quit the realm. But husband intends leaving the alimony must have been actually decreed; for if the jurisdictive case was still pending, courts of equity would not have granted the writ.

2. In cases where there is an admitted balance, but plaintiff claims a larger sum.

2. Where there was an admitted balance due by the defendant to the plaintiff, but a larger sum was claimed by the plaintiff, the writ would be issued, for there was not in such a case any real deviation from the appropriate jurisdiction of courts of equity, matters of account having been properly cognisable therein (α) .

The debt must be certain in its nature. As to the nature of the equitable demand for which a writ of *ne exeat regno* would be issued, it must have been certain as to its nature, and actually payable, and not contingent. It should also have been for some debt or pecuniary demand. The writ would not be issued, therefore, in a case where the demand was of a general unliquidated nature, or was in the nature of damages.

Judicature Acts,—effect of. The Judicature Acts, 1873-75, do not appear to have in any respect altered the equitable jurisdiction in respect of the writ ne exeat regno; although it may be a question, whether the writ would not now issue for legal as well as for equitable debts (b), assuming that the other circumstances of the case were proper for the exercise by the court of this jurisdiction.

A writ of ne exeat regno may also issue summarily under the Absconding Debtors' Act, 1870 (e), where the debtor is going abroad after the issue of a debtor's summons against him under the Bankruptcy Act, 1869 (d).

⁽a) Sobey v. Sobey, L. R. 15 Eq. 200.

⁽b) Judicature Act, 1873, s. 24, sub-sect. 7.

⁽c) 33 & 34 Vict. c. 76. (d) Lees v. Patterson, 7 Ch. Div. 866. See also Debtors' Act, 1869, s. 6.

BOOK II.

THE PRACTICE IN EQUITY.

Sections 1-4.

THE COURTS (SUPERIOR AND INFERIOR, ORIGINAL AND APPELLATE) HAVING JURISDICTION IN EQUITY,—ALSO, THE JURISDICTION THEREOF.

§ I. The Chancery Division.—The Courts Original and Appellate.—Firstly, there is the High Court, consisting of the Rolls Court, the Courts of the three Vice-Chancellors (each of these four Courts having chambers attached to it), and the Court of the Additional Judge (Fry, J.), appointed under the Supreme Court of Judicature Act, 1877 (40 Vict., c. 9), but having no chambers attached to it. [The three Common Law Divisions, namely, the Queen's Bench, Common Pleas, and Exchequer Divisions, have also full jurisdiction in Equity, but (for reasons of convenience) do not choose to exercise that jurisdiction excepting where and so far as equitable matters arise incidentally in the course of the proper jurisdiction of these several divisions.]

Secondly, there is the Court of Appeal, consisting of the Lords Justices, three of them, at the least, being required upon all appeals from judgments (final or interlocutory), and two of them, at the least, in all appeals from interlocutory orders (Act 1876,* § 12),

^{*} Act 1873, means the Judicature Act, 1873; Act 1875, means the

There are usually two divisions of this Court sitting, one at Lincoln's Inn for matters arising in the Chancery Division (and in the Probate Division), [and one at Westminster for matters arising in the Common Law Divisions]. The Court of Appeal has only appellate jurisdiction, but may exercise such original jurisdiction as is incidental thereto (Act 1873, § 19; Wilson v. Church, 11 Ch. Div. 576; British Dynamite Company v. Krebs, 11 Ch. Div. 448).

Thirdly, there is the House of Lords, to which an appeal lies from every judgment (whether final or interlocutory), and also from every interlocutory order of the Court of Appeal in Chancery (Walsall Overseers v. L. & N. W. Railway Co., 4 App. Cases, 30).

- § 2. The Chancery Division.—General Jurisdiction of.—The matters assigned (and, in effect, exclusively assigned) to the Chancery Division of the High Court (Act 1873, § 34) are the following:—
 - (1.) All causes and matters (other than appeals from County Courts), which, by any particular or general statute, have been, or shall be, exclusively assigned to that Division; and
 - (2.) All causes and matters connected with the following matters, namely:—
 - (α) Administration of Estates;
 - (b) Partnerships,—Dissolution and Accounts;
 - (c) Mortgages,—Redemption and Foreclosure;
 - (d) Portions and other Charges on Land,—Raising of;

Judicature Act, 1875; Act 1876, means the Appellate Jurisdiction Act, 1876; and Act 1877, means the Judicature Act, 1877; also, Roman numerals denote the number of Order, and Arabic numerals denote the number of Rule, the Orders and Rules of the Supreme Court being (for the sake of brevity) so denoted throughout this Epitome of Practice. Matter stated within square brackets, thus [], appertains mostly to the Common Law Divisions.

- (e) Liens and Charges on Property,—Sale of such Property, and distribution of proceeds of sale;
- (f) Trusts (Public or Private),—Execution of;
- (g) Deeds and other Instruments,—Cancellation, or Setting aside, or Rectification thereof;
- (h) Sales and Leases, Contracts for—Specific Performance of;
- (i) Real Estate,—Partition and Sale of;
- (k) Infants, Custody of their Persons and Estates (Act 1873, § 34); and (practically)
- (l) Lunatics so found by inquisition (Act 1875, § 7); besides, also—
- (m) Lunatics not so found (Vane v. Vane, 2 Ch. Div. 124; and see Ex parte Cahen, In re Cahen, 10 Ch. Div. 183); and besides also—
- (n) Married Women,—in all the intricate questions relating to their property, whether settled to their separate use or not.

And the Chancery Division has also concurrent jurisdiction in every matter or thing (of a CIVIL character) in which the Common Law Divisions have jurisdiction,—e.g., a matter of account, however simple, is now the subject of equitable jurisdiction, and even, semble, an injunction may be granted to restrain the publication of a libel (Hinrichs v. Berndes, W. N., 1878, p. 11), sed quære.

[Similarly, in the Common Law Divisions, the Q. B. Division has still exclusive jurisdiction in all causes and matters civil and criminal which would have fallen exclusively to the Court of Q. B. if the Judicature Act had not been passed (Act 1873, § 34: Re Ellershaw, Ex parte Longbottom, I Q. B. Div. 48I; and see Glossop v. Heston and Isleworth Local Board, I2 Ch. Div. 102); similarly, the C. P. Division and the Exchequer Division (Act 1873, § 34); and similarly, the Probate Division (Act 1873, § 34; Act 1875, § 11),—but in every case,

subject to the more general provisions of the Judicature Acts, under which every division has all the jurisdiction of every other.]

- § 3. Divisional Courts.—Matters for.—The various business for these courts may be classified as under:—
 - (1.) All appeals (from Petty or Quarter Sessions) from a County Court, or from any other Inferior Court, which, before the Judicature Acts, 1873-5, lay to the Superior Courts of Law or Equity (Act 1875, § 45; lvii. α, 1);
 - (2.) Cases, or points in cases, reserved at trials for the consideration of the Divisional Court, and cases or points in cases directed at trials to be argued before the Divisional Court (Act 1873, § 46);
 - (3.) Applications for New Trials, from a trial before a Judge with a Jury (xxxix. I; lvii. α, I, Dec. 1876); and also applications for New Trials from a trial in the County Court, even without a jury (London v. Roffey, 3 Q. B. Div. 6; Davis v. Godbehere, 4 Exch. Div. 215);
 - (4.) Applications for orders charging stock or shares (xlvi. 1); and
 - (5.) The following civil (besides certain election and criminal) proceedings, viz.:—
 - (a) Proceedings directed by Act of Parliament to be taken before the Court, when the Court's decision is final;
 - (b) Cases stated by the Railway Commissioners;
 - (c) Special cases, by agreement of all parties; and
 - (d) Appeals from the Common Law Chambers to the Court (lvii. a, 1).

There are very few matters in equity that go to Divisional Courts, and when any such arise they are taken to the Divisional Court sitting at Westminster; e.g.,

applications for New Trials, when trial before judge with a jury; also, equity appeals from County Courts (Hunt v. City of London Real Property Co., 2 Q. B. Div. 605; 3 Q. B. Div. 19; Clarke v. Roche, 3 Q. B. Div. 170).

Appeals (where they lie) from a Divisional Court are to the Court of Appeal, and thence to the House of Lords.

§ 4. Inferior Courts (including County Courts),— General Jurisdiction of.—Every inferior court having jurisdiction in equity, or in both law and equity, is to grant (in all proceedings before it) such relief, redress, or remedy, or combination of remedies, either absolute or conditional, and is also to grant such or the like effect to every ground of defence or counter-claim, equitable or legal, in as full a manner as the High Court may and ought to grant (Act 1873, § 89); c.g., it may issue an injunction, and also commit or attach for breach of the injunction (Reg. v. Harington, W. N., 1879, p. 14; Ex parte Martin, 4 Q. B. Div. 212; Martin v. Bannister, 4 Q. B. Div. 491); subject to this one exception or limitation, viz., that where the defence or counter-claim involves matter beyond the jurisdiction of such inferior court, no relief is to be given thereon beyond the limit of the jurisdiction of the inferior court (Act 1873, § 90; Davis v. Flagstaff Silver Mining Co., 3 C. P. Div. 228); but such limited relief may be given, or the entire action may (on the application of either party) be transferred into the High Court (Act 1873, § 90). As regards removal of action generally from County Court into High Court, see 28 and 29 Vict., c. 99, for Chancery matters [and 19 and 20 Vict., c. 108, for Common Law matters]; and conversely, as regards removal of action generally from High Court into County Court, see 30 and 31 Vict., c. 142, § 7, for Chancery and Common Law matters equally; and see Osborne v. Homburg, I Exch. Div. 48; Foster v. Underwood, 3 Exch. Div. I; Welpby v. Bull, 3 Q. B. Div. 80, 253; and distinguish Insley v. Jones, 4 Exch. Div. 16.

The appeal from an inferior court (including the Lord Mayor's Court, Appleford v. Judkins, 3 C. P. Div. 489, overruling Le Blanch v. Reuter's Telegraph Co., I Exch. Div. 408) is to a divisional court of the High Court, and the decision of such divisional court is usually final (Act 1873, § 45), but may (with the leave of the divisional court) be appealed to the Court of Appeal (Act 1873, § 45). And in the case of an action remitted from the High Court to the County Court, a New Trial is to be moved for in a divisional court, even when trial has been without a jury (London v. Roffey, 3 Q. B. Div. 6; Davis v. Godbehere, 4 Exch. Div. 215).

SECTION 5.

THE FORMAL PROCEDURE AND THE SUMMARY PROCEDURE DISTINGUISHED.

The formal procedure is the regular de cursu procedure in an action properly so called, commencing with a writ (i. I), and proceeding successively to statement of claim and statement of defence, with or without a reply or other subsequent pleadings, and thereafter to argument or (as the case may require) to trial and argument both, and to judgment or (as the case may be) to verdict and judgment both, followed up with satisfaction of the judgment. The particular steps of this de cursu procedure are successively detailed here-It is conceivable, although it rarely happens, that nothing but the formal procedure should be used in an action; more often, however, and in fact almost always, many incidental proceedings intervene in the progress of every action from its commencement to its conclusion, such incidental proceedings being necessitated by various occasions arising in the action, and

being disposed of in an expeditious and less formal or informal manner, whence these latter proceedings of an occasional and prout res exigit character are commonly designated and classified together as the summary procedure in the action. The particular occasions for the exercise of the summary procedure are indicated hereunder, and in general at the particular stages at which they respectively arise in the action.

Besides the summary jurisdiction in an action, the Chancery Division of the High Court exercises also a large summary jurisdiction, upon petition, motion, and summons, independently of the pendency of any action. and solely by virtue of certain statutory provisions in that behalf; and sometimes by reason merely of the Court having seisin of the subject-matter, e.g., where money has been paid into Court under the Act for the Relief of Trustees (In re Slater's Trusts, 11 Ch. Div. This particular summary or statutory jurisdiction is wholly excluded from this epitome of the "Practice in Equity," but it will be found very conveniently stated in Morgan's Chancery Acts and Orders, 4th and [Similarly, the Common Law Divisions 5th editions. exercise a like large summary jurisdiction under the provisions of particular statutes, and sometimes by force merely of the original jurisdiction vested in them before the Judicature Acts; that summary jurisdiction is wholly excluded from this epitome, but will be found in Chitty's Archbold's Practice of the Q. B., C. P., and Exchequer, 13th edition.

Sections 6-16.

THE WRIT OF SUMMONS—THE FORMAL PROCEDURE, WITH THE SUMMARY PROCEDURE INCIDENTAL THERETO.

§ 6. The Writ of Summons.—Preparation and Issue of.—Having procured an ordinary form of writ at the

law stationer's, fill up same with (among other matters which the form itself suggests) the names of the parties on the face of it, and an indication of the plaintiff's claim on the back of it, which indication of claim is called the plaintiff's indorsement of claim; and further, there must be an indorsement of the plaintiff's address for service—such address being his own or his solicitor's office, if that is within three miles of Temple Bar, or else some other specified place within that limit; and in addition thereto (but only when the solicitor is a mere agent of another solicitor), there must be an indorsement of the principal solicitor's name and place of business (iv. 1, 2). These three matters, viz., the selection of the parties, the indorsement of claim, and the indorsement of the address or addresses, having been done, the writ is then taken (in the case of Chancery matters) to the Record and Writ Clerk's Office Chancery,* [and (in the case of Common Law matters) to the Queen's Bench, Common Pleas, or Exchequer Division Office, as the case may be]; and upon payment of ten shillings, an adhesive stamp for that amount is affixed to the writ (on the face of it, left hand, near top), and the seal of the office is then impressed upon the writ (on the face of it, left hand near foot), and all (if any) erasures, cancellings, or interlineations on the writ are at the same time marked with a smaller seal impressed, each of them being marked separately. So soon as the writ is so impressed

^{*} The writ of summons in any Chancery [or Common Law] action may be issued out of any District Registry; and if the defendant resides or trades within the district selected by plaintiff, then the writ is to direct defendant to enter his appearance in the same Registry; but if defendant neither resides nor trades there, then the writ is to mention that the defendant may enter his appearance either in London or in the District Registry (v. 1-3). The plaintiff's "address for service" (e.g., of defendant's notice of appearance to writ of summons) is to be specified on the writ,—being his own or his solicitor's office if that is within the district, or else some other specified place within the district, and in addition thereto (but only when the defendant neither resides nor trades within the district) an address in London not more than three miles from Temple Bar (iv. 3a; Smith v. Dobbin, 3 Exch. Div. 338).

with the seal of the office, it is said to be issued (v. 6). The writ is tested (i.e., witnessed) in the name of the Lord Chancellor or (but only in the case of there being no Lord Chancellor) in the name of the Lord Chief Justice of England, and bears date the day of issue (ii. 8). And the plaintiff marks on the writ the division to which he assigns his action, and (in the Chancery Division) the name of the judge to whom he assigns same (Act 1875, § 11, sub-sects. 1, 2, 3; v. 4). The plaintiff takes the sealed writ (and which is called the original writ) and leaves a copy of same at the office; and the copy so left is filed in the office, and an entry of the filing is made in the cause-book, and the action is distinguished by the date of the current year of filing, a letter (being the first letter of the plaintiff's surname) and a number (being the number which denotes the order of the particular writ among all the writs entered under the same letter in the same year). This year, letter, and number are marked on the original writ, and on all copies thereof, and on all subsequent documents in the action, on the first page of every such document (right hand, near top).*

§ 7. The Writ of Summons.—Indorsement of Claim upon.—The writ of summons, as already stated, is to be indorsed with a statement of the nature of the claim made, or of the relief or remedy required in the action (ii. 1); but in such indorsement, it is not essential to set forth the precise ground of complaint or the precise remedy or relief to which the plaintiff considers himself entitled (iii. 2); and accordingly, as we shall see (§ 12) the indorsement may be amended so as to extend to any other cause of action or any additional

^{*} Where the writ issues out of the District Registry, the like steps are gone through; and the name of the particular District Registry is to be specified on the face of the writ (left hand, near top, between, in Chancery matters, Chancery Division and name of particular judges, and, in Common Law matters, immediately under the name of the Division).

remedy or relief (Colebourne v. Colebourne, L. R. I Ch. D. 690). If the plaintiff sues, or a defendant is sued, in a representative capacity, the indorsement of claim is to show it (iii. 4). In all cases of ordinary account (e.g., a partnership, executorship, or ordinary trust account), if the plaintiff desires an account in the first instance, the indorsement of claim is to ask expressly for such account (iii. 8); [also, in all actions where the claim is for a debt or liquidated demand in money with or without interest, the indorsement of claim should be special, that is, should specify the particulars of the amount claimed (iii. 6); and should also include a sum for costs specified separately from the other particulars (iii. 7), and should mention that upon payment of the specified debt and specified costs all further proceedings will be stayed].

§ 8. The Writ of Summons.—Service of.—So soon as the writ is issued, the plaintiff should in general serve same on the defendant or defendants at once. This service is personal, that is, copy of writ must be put into defendant's hands or left in his presence with (in the latter case) a verbal intimation to him that the slip of paper is a copy of writ; and the plaintiff must also show the original writ to the defendant, but, semble, only if he desires to see it (Goggs v. Huntingtower, 12 M. & W. 503; ix. 2). The person serving the writ should immediately (and within three days at the most), after service, indorse on the original writ the day of the month and week of the service (ix. 13).

Where husband and wife are co-defendants, service on the husband is also service on the wife (ix. 3).

Where the defendant is an infant, the service is primâ facie good if effected on his or her father or guardian, or (if none) then on the person with whom

the infant resides, or under whose care he or she is (ix. 4).

Where the defendant is a lunatic so found by inquisition, service on his or her committee is good service, and if there has been an inquisition, but as yet no committee either of the person or of the estate of the lunatic has been appointed, the court will upon motion direct service usually upon the keeper of the asylum, or other the person with whom the lunatic is residing (Thorn v. Smith, W. N. 1879, p. 81); and when a defendant of unsound mind has not yet been found so by inquisition, the service is primâ facie good if effected on the person with whom he or she resides, or under whose care he or she is (ix. 5).

Where the defendants are partners, and are described by the partnership name (and not by their individual names), service of the writ is good if effected personally upon any one or more of them, or if effected at the office (if only one), or at the principal office (if more than one), of the partnership, within the jurisdiction, upon the person having at the time of service the control or management of the business there (ix. 6); and the like rule applies where an ostensible partnership consisting, in fact, of but one person is made a defendant by the ostensible partnership name, and not by his or her own individual name (ix. 6a).

Where defendant is in legal possession of premises which the plaintiff claims to recover, and the plaintiff cannot effect personal service on the defendant, and the premises are vacant, service is good if a copy of the writ is posted upon the door of the premises, if a dwelling-house, or upon some other conspicuous part of the premises, not being a dwelling-house (ix. 8).

§ 9. The Writ of Summons.—Leave to issue.—In case the defendant, or any one or more of the defendants,

is or are out of the jurisdiction, and it is intended to serve the writ there, or to give notice of it there, the leave of the court or of a judge must first be obtained before the writ or summons can be sealed (i.e., issued) at all (ii. 4). Such leave may be obtained upon motion in court, supported by an affidavit entitled in the action that is to be, and in the matter of the Judicature Acts (Young v. Brassey, L. R. I Ch. D. 277); however, by direction of the Master of the Rolls (Jessell, M.R.), and which direction has been substantially adopted by the several Vice-Chancellors, the unsealed writ is to be left at chambers, with an office copy of the affidavit (if any affidavit necessary), and the judge's leave to issue the writ is then written on the unsealed writ. The title of the affidavit (if any affidavit necessary) is not altered by the direction.

N.B.—It is sometimes necessary before commencing an action to obtain leave to do so; e.g., after a first action involving substantially the same questions as the second proposed action, for in such a case the practice in use prior to the Judicature Acts, 1873-5, remains in force (Laming v. Gee, 10 Ch. Div. 715).

§ 10. The Writ of Summons.—Leave to make Substituted Service of, or to give Notice in lieu of Service of.—Where personal service can be effected, but for some reason or other cannot be promptly effected (W. N., 1875, p. 202), the plaintiff must obtain from the court or a judge (i.e., by motion in court or by summons at chambers) an order for substituted or other service, or for the substitution of notice for service (ix. 2). Such order is to be obtained on an affidavit, or affidavits, showing sufficient grounds for it (x.), and in particular that the defendant is in present communication with the proposed substitute, or (as the case may be) that the notice proposed to be given will come under the defendant's observation.

- § II. The Writ of Summons.—Leave to Serve out of Jurisdiction.—Assuming the action to be one within the jurisdiction of the court (xi. 1), if the plaintiff desires to serve writ upon, or to give notice thereof to, a defendant or defendants out of the jurisdiction, he must move in court for an order giving him leave so to do, upon an affidavit or affidavits showing in what place or country such defendant or defendants is or are or probably may be found, and showing whether or not such defendant or defendants is or are a British subject or British subjects, and showing also the grounds upon which the application is made (xi. 3); and in case the action is in respect of a contract or the breach thereof (xi. 1a), the affidavit or affidavits in support of the motion must show also various circumstances influencing the judge's discretion regarding the convenience of having the action tried in England rather than in the foreign country (Mackenzie v. Shepherd, 21 Sol. Jour. 339; Woods v. MInnes, 4 C. P. Div. 67; Cresswell v. Parker, II Ch. Div. 601). And, nota bene, if the defendant is a foreigner out of the jurisdiction, then the leave to be obtained is leave to give notice of the writ to him, and not leave to serve him with the writ itself (Westman v. Aktiebolaget, I Exch. Div. 237; Padley v. Camphausen, 10 Ch. Div. 550), the Act 1873, § 76, preserving for this purpose the C. L. P. Act. 1852, § 19.
- § 12. The Writ of Summons.—Leave to Amend.—The plaintiff's indorsement of claim on writ need not (at least in the first instance) set forth the precise ground of complaint or the precise remedy or relief to which the plaintiff considers himself entitled (iii. 2); and if the plaintiff should afterwards desire to extend his indorsement of claim to any other cause of action, or any additional remedy or relief, he may obtain an order from the court or a judge giving him leave to do so (iii. 2). This order is obtained on motion in

court ex parte, and counsel's note indorsed on brief is to be initialed by the registrar, but no order need be drawn up (Mathias v. Mathias, W. N., 1876, p. 214). And this leave to amend writ is now not confined to amending the indorsement of claim, but extends to amending the writ generally (xxvii. 11), even as regards the addition of parties (Ashley v. Taylor, 10 Ch. Div. 768), but not, semble, the striking out of parties (Elwor v. Vaughan, W. N., 1879, p. 66); unless the particular party is specified in the order giving leave (Wymer v. Dodds, 11 Ch. Div. 436). The amended writ is to be served like the original writ (The Cassiopeia, 4 P. Div. 188).

§ 13. The Writ of Summons.—Order to stay proceedings on.—When the plaintiff indorses on his writ the name of a solicitor as his attorney, any defendant served therewith may (upon ascertaining from the solicitor that the name is used without authority) obtain a peremptory order to stay proceedings in the action (vii. 1). The order may be obtained on summons at chambers, upon an affidavit stating the plaintiff's unauthorised use of the solicitor's name.

Also, when the plaintiffs are partners suing by their partnership name, if they or their solicitors fail to furnish, on demand in writing by or on behalf of any defendant, the names and places of residence of all the persons who are partners in the firm, the defendant may (upon summons at chambers supported by an affidavit of that failure) obtain an order to stay all proceedings in the action upon terms (vii. 2).

§ 14. The Writ of Summons.—Order to serve particular persons.—Where husband and wife are codefendants, the court or a judge may order the wife to be served with or without service on the husband (ix. 3).

Where an infant is defendant, the court or a judge

may order that service made, or to be made, on him or her personally shall be deemed good service (ix. 4).

Where an infant or a lunatic is defendant, the court or a judge may order that the mode of service specified in § 8, *supra*, shall not be deemed good service on him or her (ix. 4 and 5).

§ 15. The Writ of Summons.—Issue of Concurrent Writs.—At the time of issuing the original writ, or within twelve months thereafter, the plaintiff may issue one or more concurrent writ or writs, i.e., copies of the original writ, even the date being the same, with a seal impressed on each copy, such seal containing the word "Concurrent," and also showing the date when such concurrent seal was impressed, i.e., when such concurrent writ was issued. Every concurrent writ is in force only so long as the original writ is in force; but as the original writ, which, in the first instance, is in force for one year only (viii, I), may be kept in force for an indefinite time beyond the year by successive renewals thereof (§ 16, infra), the concurrent writ may, semble, be correspondingly kept in force (vi. 1).

A writ for service within the jurisdiction may be issued concurrently with one for service out of the jurisdiction (vi. 2), and *vice versâ*,—the plaintiff being careful to comply with § 9, *supra*.*

§ 16. The Writ of Summons.—Renewals of.—In case any defendant shall not have been served with the writ or concurrent writ, the plaintiff may apply before the expiration of the year for an order for renewal of the writ or concurrent writ, by summons in chambers, supported with an affidavit or affidavits

^{*} A concurrent writ may be issued, semble, out of the District Registry, out of which the original writ issued, if that was so.

sufficiently showing that reasonable efforts have been made to serve such defendant with the writ or concurrent writ as the case may be, or showing other sufficient grounds for the order for renewal. The renewal, if made, is for six months; a second, third, &c., renewal may be ordered in the like manner and upon the like grounds at any time during the currency of the last preceding renewal. The plaintiff, after obtaining the order, leaves a memorandum directing the renewal at the Record and Writ Clerk's Office, Chancery, and the writ or concurrent writ is marked with a renewal seal, which seal shows the day of the month and the year of the renewal. The effect of renewing the writ or concurrent writ is to keep alive the action for all purposes, and (among these), to prevent the statutes of limitation becoming a bar to the remedy. Where, by an inadvertence that is excusable, the original year has run out before the first renewal of writ, the court may (lvii. 6) make an order for renewal, notwithstanding the limit of one year, but the court cannot do so if the statutes of limitation have meanwhile operated (Eyre v. Cox, In re Jones, W. N., 1877, p. 38; Doyle v. Kaufman, 3 Q. B. Div. 7, 340).*

SECTIONS 17-27.

THE APPEARANCE OF DEFENDANT.—THE FORMAL PROCEDURE WITH THE SUMMARY PROCEDURE INCIDENTAL THERETO.

§ 17. The Appearance of Defendant.—Mode and Time of Entry of.—The defendant enters an appearance (in Chancery matters) at the Record and Writ Clerk's Office Chancery, [and (in Common Law matters) at the office of the Division out of which the writ of summons issued].† The defendant appears by leaving a

^{*} The writ may be renewed in the District Registry (viii. 1), out of which it issued, if that was so (viii. 1).

[†] Where writ of summons issued out of District Registry, then if defendant resides or trades within the district, he is to enter his

slip or memorandum purporting to be an authority to the Record and Writ Clerks [or officer of the Common Law Division to enter the appearance; and upon receiving this memorandum, the clerk [or officer] enters same in the cause-book (xii. 11). The normal period for appearing in the case of a defendant within the jurisdiction is the time specified in the writ, being usually eight days after service of writ of summons (see Form of Writ), and in the case of a defendant without the jurisdiction being the time limited by the court in its order giving leave to serve writ (xi. 4, and see Form of Writ). But a defendant may appear before the expiration of the time specified, and also (but in that case not without peril) after the expiration thereof, at any time before judgment is delivered (xii. 15), in the latter case giving notice of the fact to the plaintiff the very day of the appearance.

§ 18. The Appearance of Particular Defendants.— Entry of.—Where a partnership firm is the defendant or defendants, and the firm name is the name under which he or they are sued, he or they are to enter his or their appearance or appearances in his or their own individual names, one memorandum, however, sufficing in this case (as in other cases) for two or more defendants appearing by the same solicitor (xii. 12, 12a, 13).

§ 19. The Appearance.—Leave for and Entry of in Particular Cases.—(a.) If the writ of summons is indorsed with a claim for the recovery of land, the land-lord (although not a defendant) may obtain on sum-

appearance in the District Registry (xii. 2); but if he neither resides nor trades there, he may enter his appearance in the District Registry or (at his own option) in the London Office (xii. 3); and if in such a case he enter his appearance in the London Office, he is to give notice of that fact to the plaintiff, or plaintiff's solicitor (xii. 6a), and such notice must be sent to the plaintiff's address for service within the district (xii. 6a, Smith v. Dobbin, 3 Exch. Div. 338).

mons at chambers, or upon motion in court, upon an affidavit of his actual or constructive possession, an order giving him leave to appear, and thereupon he leaves his memorandum of appearance at the office, and gives notice thereof to the plaintiff, and after that he is named as a defendant, and treated as such in all the subsequent stages of the action (xii. 18, 19, 20).

- (b.) When an action is commenced on a bill of exchange or promissory note within six months after due, the writ of summons with which the action is commenced under the Summary Procedure on Bills of Exchange Act, 1855, directs (in effect) the defendant to obtain leave to appear, and also to appear, within twelve days after service thereof upon him (Form, Schedule A, to Act, 1855). The defendant obtains leave to appear upon summons at chambers, supported with an affidavit showing some grounds of defence to the action; and having obtained this leave, he appears in the usual way, and afterwards of course defends.
- § 20. The Memorandum of Appearance.—Contents of.—The defendant's solicitor's business address, or (if the defendant appears in person) the defendant's own residential address, is to be specified (xii. 7, 8); also, in either case, an "address for service," being some place within three miles from Temple Bar.*

Where in an action for the recovery of land, the landlord being in possession by his tenant only, *i.e.*, in constructive and not actual possession, obtains leave to appear and defend, he is to state in his memorandum that he appears as landlord (xii. 19); and he may also (if the fact is so) state in his memorandum, that he limits his defence to any (therein specified) part of the

^{*} If appearance is entered in District Registry, the address for service is to be within the District (xii. 7, 8).

premises (xii. 21). If the memorandum of appearance should not state any limit to the defence, then such a landlord may state the limit (if any) to his defence in a notice intituled in the action and signed by himself or his solicitor, and which notice (if any) must be served on the plaintiff within four days after appearance (xii. 21).

- § 21. The Appearance of Defendant.—Plaintiff's Motion to set aside.—If the memorandum of appearance should not contain an "address for service," it cannot be entered at all; and if the address given is found to be illusory or fictitious, upon due inquiry, the plaintiff may apply to the court or a judge for an order setting the appearance aside (xii. 9).
- § 22. The Appearance of Defendant.—Plaintiff's affidarit of Service in lieu of.—In a Chancery action, if a defendant fails to appear within the specified time (§ 17, supra), the plaintiff is thereupon to file an affidavit of service of writ (personal or substituted, as the case may be) or of notice in lieu of service (xiii. 2, 9); and upon that being done, the action in general proceeds as if that defendant had appeared (xiii. 9).*
- § 23. The Appearance of Infant (or Lunatic) Defendant.—Appointment of Guardian ad litem.—But if the non-appearing defendant is an infant (or is a lunatic not so found), the plaintiff after the expiration of the time specified for appearance gives six clear days' notice of his intention to apply to the court for the appointment of a guardian ad litem to such infant (or lunatic),—such notice being served in the case of the infant (or lunatic) upon or at the dwelling-house of the person who was in charge of him when the writ of

^{*} In exceptional actions, the plaintiff may sign judgment (final or interlocutory or both final and interlocutory) for defendant's default of appearance. See §§ 75-88, regarding JUDGMENTS, infra.

summons was served, and being further served in the case of the infant (when not in charge of his father or guardian) upon or at the dwelling-house of his father or guardian (if any) (xiii. I). The application for the appointment of a guardian ad litem is in each case made upon motion, supported with an affidavit of the fitness of the proposed guardian. The plaintiff takes this course only where the person in charge of the infant (or lunatic) fails to enter an appearance; because if such person should enter an appearance, then he should himself go on to obtain, upon petition of course or upon motion, the appointment of the guardian ad litem; and at any rate, the plaintiff need not in such a case apply for the appointment of any guardian until the time for defendant putting in his defence.

§ 24. The Appearance.—Summons to Interplead and Proceedings thereon.—After a defendant has appeared to a writ of summons, and at any time before he delivers his statement of defence, he may (if he is in no way interested in, otherwise than as being the custodian of, the subject-matter of the litigation) take out an interpleader-summons, and obtain on such summons (supported by an affidavit of his own absence of interest in, and some third person's claim to, the subject-matter of the ligitation) an order calling upon such third person to appear and state the nature and particulars of his claim, and staying meanwhile all proceedings in the action (i. 2, and I & 2 Will, IV., c. 58, § 1); and in the result, the judge (or master) may order such third person (appearing to the summons) to litigate his claim either as a defendant to the action or as a defendant to some other action, or as a party to some issue designed to determine his right, or the judge (or master) may order such third person (not appearing to the summons) to be barred of all claim as against the defendant (liv. 2a, Nov. 1878, and 1 & 2 Will. IV., c. 58, § 3). In cases where the third party

appears to the summons, the judge (or master) may also in all cases (with the consent of the plaintiff and such appearing third person), summarily dispose of the question between them (3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 38, § 1), and the judge may also in all cases where the subjectmatter is trivial (at the request either of the plaintiff or of such appearing third person), summarily determine the question (23 & 24 Vict., c. 126, § 14); in which latter case, as also where the parties have consented to the judge's final determination, there is no appeal from the judge's summary decision (23 & 24 Vict., c. 126, § 17; Dodds v. Shepherd, L. R. I Exch. Div. 75); but, of course, where there has been an issue formally tried and decided, and no such consent as aforesaid, there is an appeal here as in other cases (Witt v. Parker, 46 L. J. Q. B. 450; and see Withers v. Parker, 4 H. & N. 810).

Nota Bene.—The sheriff is often obliged to take out an interpleader-summons, e.g., when he proceeds to enforce execution on the judgment obtained in the action, and finds that the goods seized according to the directions of the judgment creditor are claimed by some third person as his. The sheriff, remaining in possession, proceeds forthwith to take out an interpleader-summons in the action, and the third person is then required to make out his title to the goods. The proceedings on this interpleader are like the proceedings upon the ordinary interpleader-summons (Wright v. Redgrave, 11 Ch. Div. 24).

§ 25. The Appearance.—Summons to obtain leave to appear under Summary Procedure on Bills of Exchange Act, 1855.—When an action is commenced on a bill of exchange or promissory note within six months after due, the writ of summons (with which the action commences) directs (in effect) the defendant to obtain leave to appear, and also to appear, to the writ within

twelve days after service thereof upon him (Form, Schedule A., to Act, 1855). Unless the defendant can show some defence to the action on the merits, he will not get leave to appear, and so final judgment may be entered against him after the twelve days; but if he succeed in obtaining (within the twelve days) leave to appear (upon showing some such defence as aforesaid), and if he do also thereupon appear within the time limited for his appearance to the writ, then in its other stages, the action proceeds like any other action in the High Court. The application for leave to appear is made at chambers (to the chief clerk or judge in Chancery, or to the Master in the Common Law Division), or in the district registry, when writ of summons issued thereout (liv. 2; xxxv. 4; Oger v. Bradnum, L. R., I C. P. Div. 334).

§ 26. The Appearance.—The Consolidation of Actions. —Where in the same division of the court there are several pending actions instituted by the same plaintiff or plaintiffs against divers defendants,—then, if the question or questions in dispute are substantially the same in all the actions (and, consequently, the evidence in proof or disproof of the question or questions, when of fact, is substantially the same), the court will, upon the application of the divers defendants, or of such of them as have appeared and so soon as they have appeared, order the several actions to be consolidated (li. 4). In the consolidation-order, the applicant-defendants jointly and severally undertake to abide by the verdict or judgment in the consolidated action; but this undertaking does not, of course, interfere with these defendants' right of moving to set aside the verdict, or of moving by way of appeal from the judgment. The order of consolidation, although binding on all the applicant-defendants, is not binding on the plaintiff strictly speaking, but it is binding upon him practically, that is to say, after the consolidation-order the plaintiff must proceed (at least in the first instance) to verdict or judgment in the consolidated action, and as he may after verdict move for a new trial, and after judgment move by way of appeal therefrom in the consolidated action, he will seldom desire (where the verdict or judgment is against him) to do otherwise than adopt one or other of these two courses, although strictly speaking he may (if he choose) after verdict and judgment in the consolidated action, proceed in all or any of the other actions separately.

Semble, as against non-appearing defendants in any of the several actions, the plaintiff may proceed against them as for default of appearance (§ 22, supra); and as to all such the consolidation-order does not apply.

Scable, as against appearing defendants, not joining in the application for the consolidation-order, that order can have no application.

Nota Bene.—That the consolidation-order is made only where it is the same plaintiff or plaintiffs in each of the divers actions: And in the converse case, that is to say, when the plaintiffs are divers, and the defendant or defendants only are the same in the divers actions, no consolidation-order is made, but instead thereof the court will, on the application of the plaintiffs (or of such of them as choose to apply), make an order which is in effect a consolidation-order, that is to say, the court will select one (or more) of the divers actions as a test-action (or test-actions), and the plaintiffs undertaking to try these selected actions and to abide by the result therein in all the other actions, the court will (in its discretion) allow for taking the next step in these other actions such an extension of time as will permit the selected actions to be first tried (Amos v. Chadwick, L. R., 4 Ch. Div. 869; 9 Ch. Div. 459; Robinson v. Chadwick, 7 Ch. Div. 878).

§ 27. The Appearance.—The Transfer of Actions.— An action may, at any stage, be transferred from any one division to any other division, or, instead of being transferred, it may be retained in the division, or before the judge, to or before whom or which it has been (although improperly) assigned or commenced (Act 1873, § 36; Act 1875, § 11); the order of transfer is made by the division (or judge thereof) in which (or in whose name) the action is entitled; but the order is not obtained as a matter of course, quite the contrary (Storey v. Waddle, 4 Q. B. Div. 289); and the order being once made, the president of the proposed transferee division (i.e., the Lord Chancellor in the Chancery Division and the respective chiefs in the Common Law and Probate Divisions) either assents thereto (in which case the order of transfer operates an effectual transfer), or dissents therefrom (in which case the order of transfer becomes a nullity, and the proposed transfer not being in fact made, although the order is made, the action remains in the division (and with the judge), in which (or in whose name) it was originally entitled), (li. 2, Humphreys v. Edwards, 45 L. J., Ch. Div. 112).*

Likewise, after a decree has been made in an administration action in the Chancery Division (or in a winding up proceeding in that division), the judge who has made the decree (or his successor in office) may, without any other judge's consent, and even against the will of the parties, order to be transferred before himself any action pending in any other division by or

^{*} The Lord Chancellor, for the convenience of the administration of justice, may transfer from one division to another any action or actions, subject to the president of the transferee division assenting thereto, and he is not likely to dissent therefrom (li. 1); and the Lord Chancellor, for the like purpose, may make the like transfer from one judge in the Chancery Division to another judge in the Chancery Division (li. 1); and the transfer in the last-mentioned case may be for the purpose of trial, or of trial and further trial only, or generally (li. 1a; Lloyd v. Jones, 7 Ch. Div. 390).

against the executors or administrators of the testator or intestate, whose assets are being administered in the administration action (or by or against the company whose assets are being wound up), (li. 2a).

[Also, an action commenced and pending in one common law division, and the trial of which shall have been heard before a judge of another common law division, is from that time to be transferred to such other division (v. 4a, March 1879).]

SECTIONS 28-39.

- THE PARTIES TO THE ACTION.—THE FORMAL PROCE-DURE WITH THE SUMMARY PROCEDURE INCIDENTAL THERETO.
- § 28. The Parties to the Action.—Choice of Defendants.—The plaintiff may join as defendants all or any of the persons severally, or jointly and severally, liable on any one contract (xvi. 5); also, all or any of the persons, some or one of whom (he believes, but is uncertain which) is or are liable, whether on contract or in tort (xvi. 6).
- § 29. The Parties to the Action.—Joinder of Plaintiffs.
 —All persons may be joined as plaintiffs in whom, whether jointly, severally, or alternatively, the right to the relief claimed is alleged to exist (xvi. 1).
- § 30. The Parties to the Action.—Misjoinder and Non-joinder.—The misjoinder of plaintiffs is no longer fatal to the action on the merits, and need not even be amended (xvi. 1); but the plaintiff who is successful may have to pay to the defendant or defendants the extra costs (if any) occasioned to the latter by the misjoinder (xvi. 1). The non-joinder of a plaintiff, or the selection of the wrong plaintiff, if either has arisen

through a bonâ fide mistake, although the mistake should be of law (Duckett v. Gover, 6 Ch. Div. 82; Mason v. Harris, II Ch. Div. 97), will be remedied, and a proper plaintiff or plaintiffs will be ordered to be added, or substituted, as the case may require (xvi. I), the new plaintiff or plaintiffs consenting (xvi. I3; Turquand v. Fearon, 4 Q. B. Div. 280). The like remarks hold good, mutatis mutandis, regarding the misjoinder and non-joinder of defendants, or a defendant (xvi. 3, 5, 6, I3), but without any consent on the part of the new defendant or defendants (xvi. I3); and no defendant may object on the ground of multifariousness (xvi. 4; and see Child v. Stenning, 7 Ch. Div. 4I3; II Ch. Div. 82).

§ 31. The Parties to the Action.—Representative Parties.—An unknown heir-at-law or unascertained next of kin may be represented, in any action involving a question of construction that might affect him or them, by a nominee defendant (xvi. 9a). The court nominates such defendant on the application (usually) of the plaintiff.

Trustees, executors, and administrators represent their respective beneficiaries whether suing or being sued (xvi. 7), and that even under the Partition Acts (Simpson v. Denny, 10 Ch. Div. 28); but the court may at any time direct the beneficiaries to be joined as parties; and as regards an administrator, he must usually be a general administrator, and not merely an administrator ad litem (Dowdeswell v. Dowdeswell, 9 Ch. Div. 294). The court appears occasionally, but rarely, to dispense with the general administrator or the executor, when it already has the beneficiaries before it (Hunter v. Young, W. N., 1879, p. 99).

One or more persons out of a numerous class having the same or the like interest may sue or be sued, or may be ordered to defend, on behalf of the entire class (xvi. 9). In an administration action, or in an action for the execution of the trusts of a deed, one beneficiary may sue or be sued as representing all the beneficiaries of like character (xvi. 11), the beneficiaries represented by him receiving merely notice of the decree when made (15 & 16 Vict., c. 86, §§ 42, 44; Wingrove v. Thompson, 11 Ch. Div. 419).

§ 32. The Parties to the Action.—Infants and Lunatics.—Infants sue by their next friends (xvi. 8), and defend by their guardians ad litem (xvi. 8), but are made defendants in their own proper names, and without the addition of the guardian's name.

Lunatics so found sue by their committees, and are sued by their committees, the committee and the lunatic being both made co-plaintiffs or co-defendants, as the case may be (xviii.); lunatics not so found sue by their next friends and defend by their guardians ad litem (Vane v. Vane, L. R. 2 Ch. Div. 124), but are made defendants in their own proper names, and without the addition of the guardian's name, precisely as in the case of infants (xviii.).

§ 33. The Parties to the Action.—Married Women.
—Married women sue by their next friends (xvi. 8), and are sued by themselves and their husbands; but, with the leave of the court or a judge, and upon such (if any) terms as to giving security for costs as the court or a judge may direct, married women may sue without a next friend, and may defend without their husbands (xvi. 8). Where the property is separate estate, the rule is the same whether the married woman is plaintiff or defendant (Roberts v. Evans, 7 Ch. Div. 830); but as regards earnings, &c., under Married Women's Property Act, 1870, married women are by that Act enabled to sue alone (§ 11), but they are not

thereby enabled to be sued without their husbands (Hancocks v. Lablache, 3 C. P. Div. 197).

- § 34. The Parties to the Action.—Partners and Landlords.—Partners may sue and be sued in their partnership name (xvi. 10); a single person describing himself by a partnership name must sue in his own proper name (xvi. 10a), but may be sued either in his own proper name or in the assumed partnership name (xvi. 10a). Where a landlord has obtained leave to appear and defend (xii. 18, 19, 20), he is to be named as a party in all subsequent pleadings and documents (xii. 18, 19, 20).
- § 35. The Parties to the Action.—Multifarious Defendants.—Although, as we have seen (§ 30, supra), a defendant cannot object on the ground of multifariousness, still he may apply to the court or a judge by motion or summons for such order as may appear just to save his being embarrassed or put to needless expense in his defence of the action (xvi. 4).
- § 36. The Parties to the Action.—Adding or Striking out Parties.—In cases of the misjoinder or non-joinder of plaintiffs or defendants referred to in § 30, supra, if it becomes necessary to apply to the court or a judge to add or to strike out a plaintiff or a defendant, either party may apply by motion or summons before the trial or in a summary way at the trial for the requisite order in that behalf (xvi. 14); thus a defendant, added for discovery only, was ordered to be struck out (Wilson v. Church, 9 Ch. Div. 552); also, a plaintiff whose joinder was embarrassing has been struck out (Smith v. Richardson, 4 C. P. Div. 112). Where a defendant is so added, the plaintiff is to forthwith issue an amended writ of summons and to serve such defendant with it (xvi. 15) in the usual way (i.c., either personally, or by substitute, or by notice in lieu of service),

and if the statement of claim has already been delivered, the plaintiff is likewise to amend his statement of claim, and to deliver the statement of claim as so amended to such added defendant, either at the same time with the amended writ or within four days after the added defendant has put in his appearance to the amended writ (xvi. 16); for, of course, such defendant must put in an appearance to the amended writ, and that within the usual period after service of amended writ (§ 17, supra), otherwise the plaintiff may proceed as for default of appearance in the usual way (§ 22, supra).

§ 37. The Parties to the Action.—The Secondary (or Cross) Parties.—It sometimes (and in fact often) happens that a defendant, whether or not liable to the plaintiff, may have in respect either of the same or of some other ground of action a remedy (of some sort or other) against the plaintiff,—in fact, some counter-claim by the primary defendant against the primary plaintiff, that is to say, against the primary plaintiff either alone by himself or in conjunction with others—such others being or not being already co-plaintiffs or co-defendants in the original action. In any of the cases specified, the primary defendant may, as a secondary plaintiff, claim relief against the primary plaintiff (either alone or in conjunction with others) as a secondary defendant (or secondary defendants), that is to say, such relief as might have been claimed against such primary plaintiff (either alone or in conjunction with others) if made a defendant (or defendants) to an independent action at the suit of the primary defendant (Judicature Act, 1873, § 24, sub-sect. 3; Turner v. Hednesford Gas Co., 3 Exch. Div. 145; Bagot v. Easton, 11 Ch. Div. 392). And in any of the cases specified, the primary defendant is spared instituting against the primary plaintiff (either alone or in conjunction with others) an independent action (unless the court should direct him to

do so), and merely adds a counter-claim to his defence, delivering his defence and counter-claim to the plaintiff (alone or in conjunction with the others being already parties), or serving same indorsed with the direction to appear that is usual in a writ of summons upon the others (if any) not being already parties to the original action; and all persons so served are to appear as upon service of a writ of summons; and all defendants to the counter-claim, i.e., all the secondary defendants, may plead thereto in manner hereinafter mentioned; and the primary defendant if successful on his counterclaim obtains relief as a secondary plaintiff in the same action (Hodson v. Mochi, 8 Ch. Div. 569; Young v. Kitchen, 3 Exch. Div. 127). And as regards a successful counter-claiming defendant's costs, see §§ 127-129, infra.

§ 38. The Parties to the Action.—The Subsidiary Defendants.—It sometimes (and, in fact, often) happens, Firstly, that a defendant (if found liable to the plaintiff) may have in respect of the same ground of action a REMEDY OVER (of some sort or other) against some other or third person,—such other or third person being subsidiarily liable; or, Secondly, that either the plaintiff or the defendant may desire that the determination of some question in the action between the plaintiff (or plaintiffs) and the defendant (or defendants) should be a determination of that question binding also as between them or either of them on the one hand and some other or third person or persons on the other hand,—such other or third person or persons being subsidiarily interested therein or probably or possibly affected thereby. And in either of these two cases (Bright v. Marner, 11 Ch. Div. 394, n.), but especially in the case first mentioned (remedy over), the third person or persons (or one or some of them) may or may not be already parties (either as plaintiffs or as defendants) in the original action (§§ 28, 29, supra).

Now, firstly, if the defendant to the original action (and who is hereinafter called the primary defendant) claims some remedy over as aforesaid, he is spared instituting an independent action (unless the court should direct him to do so), and as regards such of the other or third persons as are already parties, he merely delivers his defence to them (Shepherd v. Beane, L. R. 2 Ch. Div. 223); but as regards such of the other or third persons as are not already parties, he obtains the leave of the court to issue and then issues a notice of his claim (in the form No. 1 of Appendix B., Judicature Acts, 1873-75, stamped with the seal with which writs of summons are sealed (xvi. 18); but this leave to issue third party notice is not a matter of course (Associated Home Company v. Whichcord, 8 Ch. Div. 457); and he then files a copy of such notice, and also serves same, exactly as if it were a writ of summons, and (unless the court or judge otherwise orders) the service is to be made within the time limited for delivering his defence. Together with the notice, he is to serve also a copy of the statement of claim (if any), or of the writ of summons (if there is no statement of claim). The third person so served, if he desires to dispute the plaintiff's claim against the primary defendant, may enter an appearance within eight days after service of the notice upon him, or (with the leave of the court) after the expiration of such eight days; and if he fail to appear, then he is deemed to submit to the judgment obtained by the plaintiff against the primary defendant, whether such judgment is obtained by consent or not (xvi. 20), but if he appears, and the appearance is within the specified eight days (or, semble, after their expiration), then the person who issued the notice is to apply to the court or a judge for directions generally (xvi. 21), and upon such application and among such directions, the court or a judge may give the third person so served and appearing liberty to defend the action, with all proper incidental directions (xvi. 21; Bagot v. Easton, II Ch. Div. 392). And at the trial the court is to give to such primary defendant such relief against the subsidiary defendants (or any of them) as the primary defendant might have obtained in an independent action instituted against them (Judicature Act, 1873, § 24, sub-sect. 3); sed quære, whether this last provision is workable (Treleaven v. Bray, I Ch. Div. 176).

And, secondly, if either the plaintiff or the defendant to the original action (and who is hereinafter called the primary plaintiff or primary defendant) desires such determination as aforesaid of any question in the action, he is spared instituting an independent action (unless the court should direct him to do so), and as regards such of the other or third persons as are already parties. and as regards also such of the other or third persons as are not already parties, he merely obtains from the court or a judge a form of notice (to be settled by the court or judge), and the plaintiff is to serve such notice upon or deliver the same to all the other or third persons, or such of them as the court or a judge may direct, at such time and in such manner as the court or a judge shall direct (xvi. 19); the form of notice will (semble) direct such of the other or third persons as are not already parties to appear to the original action; and after their appearance (or, semble, if they do not appear, or there are none of them to appear), then upon the application of the plaintiff, the court or a judge will give general directions regarding the determination of the question (xvi. 21).

§ 39. The Parties.—Persons made Parties by Revivor.—In case any party to an action dies, marries, or becomes bankrupt, and thereby some devolution of estate or interest arises by operation of law, the action is not to be deemed abated (l. I; Eldridge v. Burgess,

7 Ch. Div. 411); but the court may order (as the case may require) the personal representative, or the husband, or the trustee, or other the successor in interest to be made (if necessary) a party to the action or to be served with notice thereof, and the court may also otherwise order as may be just (l. 2; Twycross v. Grant, 4 C. P. Div. 40; Boynton v. Boynton, 9 Ch. Div. 250). The order is made on summons or motion supported by an affidavit of the event occasioning the devolution of interest (l. 4); and, semble, the order is (in the case of a sole plaintiff deceased) on the voluntary application of the party seeking to be added (Wingrove v. Thompson, II Ch. Div. 419), and no compulsory order can be obtained against him. sed quære. And where, pending the action, there is any devolution of interest by act of the party, the action is not to be deemed abated (l. I), but may be continued against the successor in interest (l. 3); and the requisite order may be obtained upon an ex parte application (by summons or motion) supported by an affidavit of the fact of the devolution of interest (l. 4). The like procedure applies where any person interested comes into existence after writ issued, his subsequent coming into existence operating, in fact, as a devolution of interest (l. 4; Haldane v. Eckford, W. N., 1879, p. 80).

The order in all the foregoing cases is called an order of revivor; and the order of revivor is to be served on the continuing party or parties, and also upon the new (or substitutionary) parties or party to the action, and becomes binding as from the time of service on the party served therewith (l. 5), subject, nevertheless, to be discharged upon application at any time within twelve days after service (l. 6), or (in case of effective disability) within twelve days after the removal of such effective disability * (l. 7).

^{*} Effective disability is infancy or unsoundness of mind, when the

An action may be revived, although for costs only (33 & 34 Vict., c. 28, § 19).

But there cannot be (nor need there be) any such order of revivor, if the cause of action do not survive or continue as regards the particular party (l. 1; *Lloyd* v. *Dimmack*, 7 Ch. Div. 398).

SECTIONS 40-59.

THE PLEADINGS.—THE FORMAL PROCEDURE WITH THE SUMMARY PROCEDURE INCIDENTAL THERETO.

§ 40. The Pleadings.—Succession of, and Times for. —As a general rule, the plaintiff within six weeks (extendible) after defendant's appearance (xxi. 1), delivers to the defendant a statement of claim (which is the First Pleading properly so called), and the defendant thereafter, and within eight days (extendible) after the delivery of the statement of claim (xxii. I), delivers to the plaintiff his defence (if any) to the claim, and which defence may or may not be accompanied with a counter-claim (xix. 3) against the plaintiff (either alone or in conjunction with other persons whether already parties to the action or not); and the plaintiff thereafter, and within three weeks (extendible), and any third party thereafter, and within eight days (extendible) after the delivery of the Statement of Defence (xxii. 8, and xxiv. 1), delivers to the defendant his reply. Usually the reply ends the pleadings; and no pleading subsequent to reply (other than a simple joinder of issue) can be pleaded without leave of the court or a judge, and then only upon terms (xxiv. 2).

infant or unsound person has neither a guardian ad litem nor (being a lunatic so found by inquisition) a committee. Coverture is not an effective disability as regards revivor of actions,

time for a simple joinder of issue subsequent to the plaintiff's reply is four days (xxiv. 3).

- § 41. The Pleadings.—Times for Delivering, Extensions of.—Upon summons at chambers to show cause why a [specified] extension of time should not be allowed for delivering any pleading (lvii. 6), an extension of the prescribed time may be obtained; and the order when made is to be forthwith drawn up and served,—the costs of the application being costs in the action (August 1875, rule as to costs, 22). This first extension of time (and, semble, any subsequent extension) may and should be consented to, and no order obtained (Ambroise v. Evelyn, 11 Ch. Div. 759). Any second or other subsequent extension of time may be obtained, but only upon sufficient grounds, the costs being usually reserved, or not made costs in the action.
- § 42. The Pleadings.—General Character of.—Every pleading is to be as brief as the nature of the case will admit (xix. 2), any undue length being visited with costs. A counter-claim is to have the effect of a statement of claim in a cross action (xix. 3). Every pleading (other than a simple joinder of issue, and other than a demurrer) is to state facts in a simple and natural but accurate manner, and is not to state evidence (xix. 4), or admissions (Davy v. Garrett, 7 Ch. Div. 473). Every statement of claim, and also every counter-claim, is to state specifically the relief wanted, but may also ask for general relief (xix. 8). Separate and distinct facts, made the basis of separate and distinct claims, are to be kept separate in every statement of claim and counter-claim (xix. 9). defence to a statement of claim and every reply to a counter-claim is to deal specifically with every allegation of fact that is not admitted, and a mere general denial is not sufficient (xix. 20; Boyd v. Nunn, 7 Ch. Div. 284; Collette v. Goode, 7 Ch. Div. 842), excepting that a

simple joinder of issue operates as a general denial of every material allegation of fact in the pleading upon which issue is joined, other than such allegations as the joinder of issue expressly excepts (xix. 21). Denials of fact are to be substantial and not evasive,—denials modo et formá (if standing alone) being deemed evasive (xix. 22; Tildesley v. Harper, 7 Ch. Div. 403; 10 Ch. Div. 393). No pleading (unless by way of amendment) is to be inconsistent with a previous pleading of the same party (xix. 19); and the relief claimed must also be consistent (Bagot v. Easton, 7 Ch. Div. 1; Newby v. Sharpe, 8 Ch. Div. 39; Cargill v. Bower, 10 Ch. Div. 502; Evans v. Davis, 10 Ch. Div. 747).

§ 43. The Pleadings.—Particular Rules regarding.—Every pleading containing less than ten folios of seventy-two words each may be either printed or written, or partly one and partly the other (xix. 5 and 5a). Every pleading is to be delivered to the other party or his solicitor, and in case of a defendant who has not appeared, the pleading to be delivered to him is delivered by being filed (xix. 6). A counter-claim is to be so described, so as to distinguish it from a defence properly so called (xix. 10). Pleadings in abatement are abolished (xix. 11), and apparently a motion to amend compulsorily is now substituted; also, where formerly there would have been a new assignment, there is now to be amendment simply of the statement of claim (xix. 14).

Possession is a good plea, without adding title (xix. 15), but the title must be added if the same be equitable merely, or the defence is on equitable grounds (xix. 15).

"Not guilty by statute" is a good plea; but it cannot

(excepting by leave of the court or a judge) be joined with any other plea (xix. 16).

Special defences must be specially pleaded, e.g., the statute of limitations (xix. 18), the statute of frauds (xix. 23), a release (xix. 18), and such like (Wakelee v. Davis, 25 W. R. 60); but as regards the statute of limitations, where pleaded to the recovery of land, that defence may be taken by demurrer (Dawkins v. Lord Penrhyn, 6 Ch. Div. 318; 4 App. Ca. 51).

The effect of documents is to be pleaded, and not the very words (unless where, as in libel (Harris v. Warre, 4 C. P. Div. 125), the very words are material); fraud, malice, &c., are to be pleaded as facts simply, without showing the circumstances from which they are inferred; nevertheless, fraud must still be pleaded with great particularity (In re Rica Gold Washing Co., 11 Ch. Div. 36); so also notice (unless where the precise form or terms of the notice are material); so also the existence of a contract; so also the fact of a relation having subsisted between the parties (xix. 24, 25, 26, 27). Presumptions of law are not to be pleaded (xix. 28).

§ 44. The Pleadings.—The Statement of Claim.—The plaintiff may unite in one statement of claim several causes of action (Howell v. West, W. N., 1879, p. 90), subject to the court or a judge, on the application of the defendant, directing them to be separately disposed of (xvii. 1, 8, 9),—e.g., claims by or against husband and wife, with claims by or against either of them separately (xvii. 4); claims by or against an executor or administrator, as such, with claims (connected with the estate) by or against him personally (xvii. 5); and joint claims with separate claims, by all, or some, or one of several co-plaintiffs against the same defendant

(xvii. 6),—excepting, nevertheless, the two following cases, viz.:—

- (1.) The plaintiff may not (unless by leave of the court or a judge) join with an action for the recovery of land any second cause of action other than a claim or claims in respect of arrears of rent, or mesne profits, or damages for breach of covenant relating to the same land or some part thereof (xvii. 2; Pilcher v. Hinds, 11 Ch. Div. 905); and,
- (2.) The plaintiff may not (unless by leave as aforesaid) join claims by him as a trustee in bankruptcy, with claims by him in any other capacity (xvii. 3). Also, nota bene, there can be no such joinder of causes of action by way of counter-claim (Macdonald v. Carington, 4 C. P. Div. 28).

The plaintiff may deliver a statement of claim whether the defendant desires one or not, and even though the defendant expressly states he does not desire one (xxi. I); and if the defendant expressly states that he desires one [or, semble, does not expressly state that he does not desire one], the plaintiff may (if his writ of summons was specially indorsed) give the defendant notice (marked like a statement of claim) to the effect that that indorsement is his statement of claim (xxi. 4).

§ 44a. The Pleadings.—Leave to Defend.—If the writ of summons is specially indorsed (under iii. 6 with the particulars of the debt or liquidated demand in money claimed in the action, the defendant, after appearing thereto, may by leave defend (xiv. 1, May 1877). The defendant obtains this leave upon his showing cause against an application of the plaintiff upon summons supported with an affidavit that in his (plaintiff's) belief the defendant has no defence to the

action. In order to obtain the leave, the defendant must, by affidavit or otherwise, show that he has a defence to the action on the merits (xiv. 1). The leave to defend may be granted as to part, and refused as to the rest of the claim (*Dennis* v. *Seymour*, 4 Exch. Div. 80). It is sufficient if the affidavit show a *primâ facie* defence (*Beckingham* v. *Owen*, W. N., 1878, p. 215).

§ 45. The Pleadings.—The Pleading next Subsequent to Statement of Claim.—Upon seeing the statement of claim, the defendant must consider with himself what line of defence thereto he shall adopt,—assuming (of course) that he means to defend; and his choice of defences lies among these varieties, viz.,—(1) A demurrer, (2) A plea, and (3) A defence properly so called. Now, whether he demur or whether he put in a plea, he is taken to admit (but for the purposes only of the demurrer or plea), the truth of all the allegations contained in the statement of claim,—and in the case of the demurrer, he denies their sufficiency in law, and in the case of the plea he admits their sufficiency in law. but avoids their effect by the new matter contained in his plea. But if he defend (otherwise than by plea or demurrer), he admits or not certain only of the allegations contained in the statement of claim, and denies or else expresses that he does not admit the allegations not admitted, thereby putting the plaintiff to the proof of those expressed to be not admitted (Harris v. Gamble, 7 Ch. Div. 877), as well as of those denied, and adds or not other allegations of a contrary effect; and when he adopts this line of defence, he is said to put in a statement of defence properly so called, and with that statement of defence he may (if he so choose, and if it is proper that he should) conjoin also a counter-claim, taking care to expressly distinguish such counter-claim from his defence properly so called. We have therefore to consider in this place, and in the following

order, the following varieties of pleading next subsequent to statement of claim,* viz.:-

- (a.) The defendant's demurrer to plaintiff's statement of claim:
- (b.) The defendant's plea to plaintiff's statement of claim;
- (c.) The defendant's defence to plaintiff's statement of claim; and,
- (d.) The defendant's defence and counter-claim to plaintiff's statement of claim.
- \S 46. The Pleadings.—The Defendant's Demurrer to Plaintiff's Statement of Claim.—The defendant may demur to the plaintiff's statement of claim, or to any part of it setting up a distinct cause of action, on the ground that the facts therein alleged do not show any cause of action to which effect can be given by the court against the party demurring (xxviii. I). The demurrer must express that it is to the whole action or else to some (and what?) part (xxviii. 2); and it must state some ground in law for the demurrer, and same must not be frivolous (xxviii. 2).†
- § 47. The Pleadings.—The Defendant's Plea or other Defence Proper to the Plaintiff's Statement of Claim.— Where the defendant does not demur, he may defend by stating one simple fact (e.g., a release), in which case he is said to put in his plea in destruction of the cause of action; or (where the defence is not of that simple character) he may defend by stating a succession of circumstances with or without (at the same time)

+ For demurrers to other pleadings, see Tabular Statement at the end of this Epitome of the Practice.

^{*} There may be a statement of defence even without any previous statement of claim (xxii. 2), at the option of defendant, but not so as to entitle plaintiff to require one (Hooper v. Giles, W. N., 1876, p. 10).

denying or expressing that he does not admit the whole [or certain specified parts] of the statement of claim, in which case he is said properly to defend. The latter of these two modes of defence corresponds to and may be called a traverse or plea in denial; and the former of them is a plea in confession and avoidance, or a plea in justification and excuse, or a plea in satisfaction and discharge.

- § 48. The Pleadings.—The Defendant's Plea of Payment into Court.—If the defendant pay money into court in satisfaction of the cause of action, or of any part thereof,—a mode of proceeding which he may adopt, if he so choose, in any action brought to recover a debt or damages,—then,
- (a.) If the payment is made before delivering his defence, he is to notify to the plaintiff the fact of such payment, specifying in respect of what claim the payment is made (xxx. 2), in which case the plaintiff may, within four days after notice, accept same in satisfaction thereof, and notify his acceptance thereof to the defendant, and after that, if the payment is specified to be in respect of the entire action, the action is at an end, excepting as regards costs (regarding which see Greaves v. Fleming, 4 Q. B. Div. 226; Buckton v. Higgs, 4 Exch. Div. 174; and §§ 127–129, infra); but if the payment is specified to be in respect of some part or parts only, and not in respect of the entire cause of action, then the action proceeds as to the remaining part or parts of the action (xxx. 4); and,
- (b.) If the payment is made at the time of delivering the defence, then the defendant is to plead same in his defence, specifying in such defence the claim or cause of action in respect of which the payment is made (xxx. I), in which case the plaintiff may, before delivering any reply, accept same in satisfaction thereof, and notify that fact to the defendant as aforesaid, and

after that, the action proceeds or not as aforesaid. And the defendant along with the plea of payment into court may (without any leave first obtained) plead other defences of an independent and primâ facie inconsistent character (Berdan v. Greenwood, 26 W. R. 992; and quære Spurr v. Hall, 2 Q. B. Div. 615). Of course, the defendant (if he should succeed in the action) will get his money out of court again, if the plaintiff has not already taken it out (Yorkshire Banking Co. v. Beatson, W. N., 1879, p. 96).

§ 49. The Pleadings.—The Defendant's Defence and Counter-claim to the Plaintiff's Statement of Claim.— Where the counter-claim raises questions between the defendant and the plaintiff, along with any other person or persons, the defendant is to add to the title of his defence a further title setting forth in such first title the names of all the parties to the counter-claim, like as if the same were a cross action (xxii. 5). The counter-claim must, as a pleading, conform to the general rules of pleading (§ 42, supra), and also to the particular rules of pleading (§ 43, supra); and merely referring in the counter-claim to the allegations contained in the statement of defence properly so called, is dangerous, as being likely to prove insufficient (Crowe v. Barnicot, 25 W. R. 789; 6 Ch. Div. 753; but see Lees v. Patterson, 7 Ch. Div. 866).

§ 50. The Pleadings.—Counter-claim, Application to Exclude.—The plaintiff in the original action, or any party to the counter-claim, may at any time before delivering his reply (xxii. 9) apply for an order excluding the defendant's counter-claim (Hodson v. Mochi, 8 Ch. Div. 569; Huggons v. Tweed, 10 Ch. Div. 359), upon the ground that the same should properly be raised in an independent action; and further, the plaintiff may at any time before trial of the action (xix. 3) apply for an order refusing to the

defendant permission to avail himself of his counterclaim in that action.

- § 51. The Pleadings.—Defending in divers manners in one defence.—A defendant may demur to part of a statement of claim, and plead to the other part or parts, in which case he must combine both pleadings in one document (xxviii. 4; Powell v. Jewsbury, 9 Ch. Div. 34). A defendant may even demur to the whole (or any part) of a statement of claim, and at the same time and in the same document, but only by leave first had and obtained of the court or a judge, plead to the same statement (or some part of it) (xxviii. 5).
- § 51a. The Pleadings.—Pleading after Demurring.—
 The court when asked to grant leave to plead and demur at once to one and the same matter, may, instead of granting the leave mentioned in § 51, supra, direct in the alternative the demurrer to be put in alone, and may at the same time and in the same order reserve liberty to plead (if necessary) to the same matter after the demurrer is disposed of (xxviii. 5). The like liberty to plead after the demurrer is disposed of may be granted by the court at the time the demurrer is argued and overruled, if that should be the case (xxviii. 12).
- § 52. The Pleadings.—The Reply.—The third pleading in order of succession is either the reply or else a demurrer to defendant's statement of defence, and in either case, it may be of the plaintiff to the defendant's statement of defence or to his defence and counter-claim, or it may be of some new party defendant to the defence and counter-claim. The plaintiff's reply to a simple statement of defence is usually a simple joinder of issue thereon; and if so, that is a close of the pleadings; but occasionally his reply to a simple statement of defence introduces new matter of sub-

stance, in answer to what is alleged in the statement of defence. The plaintiff's demurrer to defence (with or without counter-claim) is governed in all respects by the rules regarding demurrer already explained (§ 46, supra); and the same is to be said regarding the demurrer of every third person to statement of defence and counter-claim. But where such third party puts in a reply to defendant's statement of defence and counter-claim, then such third party's reply is (in effect) his statement of defence to the defendant's counter-claim, and is to be shaped according to the rules of pleading applicable to statements of defence, as already expounded (§ 47, supra).

- § 53. The Pleadings.—Defences arisen Subsequently to Action commenced.—As a general rule, the state of matters existing at the commencement of the action (i.e., at date of writ issued), is the only state of matters that is recognised. But under the old practice pleadings puis darrein continuance were introduced, and under the new practice defences of the like character are permitted, that is to say,—
- (a.) A defendant may plead to a statement of claim a matter of defence thereto which has arisen subsequently to writ issued, introducing such new matter into his defence (if not already delivered), or into a further defence (if the first defence has been already delivered).
- (b.) A plaintiff (or, semble, any other party defendant to a counter-claim) may plead to any counter-claim (or set-off) a matter of defence thereto which has arisen subsequently to counter-claim delivered, introducing such new matter into his reply (if not already delivered) or into a further reply (if the first reply has been already delivered).

But a further defence or a further reply (as the case

may be) cannot be put in, excepting within eight days after the matter has arisen, and by leave of the court or a judge (xx. 1, 2).

And, nota bene, no matters arisen subsequently to commencement of action can be included in a defendant's counter-claim (Original Hartlepool Colliery Co. v. Gibb, 5 Ch. Div. 713; Ellis v. Munson, 35 L. J. N. S. 585).

- § 54. The Pleadings.—Plaintiff's Confession of Defence arisen Subsequently to Action commenced.—When any defence or further defence of matter arisen subsequently to action commenced is (in plaintiff's opinion) such as to defeat his claim, then plaintiff may, instead of replying, deliver a confession of such defence or further defence, and sign judgment for costs up to date of such defence or further defence delivered (xx. 3; Champion v. Formby, 7 Ch. Div. 373).
- § 55. The Pleadings.—Withdrawal of whole or part.
 —A plaintiff may withdraw the entire cause of action, in which case he is said to discontinue same (see § 71, The Trial.—Discontinuance of Action). Or he may withdraw part only of the cause of action, doing so without leave before defendant has delivered his statement of defence or at any time before reply if statement of defence has been delivered (xxiii. 1), and doing so only with leave and upon terms at any subsequent stage of the action. The plaintiff is in each case to pay to the defendant the costs occasioned by the matter withdrawn (xxiii. 1), and for such costs the defendant may sign judgment (xxiii. 2a). A defendant may, but only with leave, withdraw the whole or any part of his defence or of his counter-claim (xxiii. 1).
- § 56. The Pleadings.—Amendment of.—There is no pleading (not even a simple joinder of issue)

which may not require to be amended,-and that on many accounts. Thus, in cases where formerly there would have been a new assignment, there is now to be an amendment merely of the statement of claim (xix. 14). Sometimes, however, instead of amendment of a pleading already delivered, there is to be a further pleading of the same sort, e.g., either a further defence or a further reply (xx. I, 2), as explained in § 53, supra. Sometimes, also, it is preferable, semble, instead of amending a preceding pleading, to introduce the fresh matter into the next following pleading (see § 52, supra). But in by far the larger number of cases, seeing that the pleadings usually close with the plaintiff's reply, it is the usual course for the plaintiff to amend his statement of claim and for the defendant to amend his statement of defence, and occasionally the one party by adverse motion may compel the other party to amend his own pleadings involuntarily (xxvii. 1). Any such amendment may be either original on the part of the amending person, or consequential upon the amendment of a previous adverse pleading.

I. Original amendments,-

- (a.) The plaintiff may without any leave amend his statement of claim once,—provided he do so within the times following, that is to say,
- '(I.) Where a statement of defence has been delivered, within three weeks after such delivery,—the plaintiff not having (meanwhile) inconsistently replied to the statement of defence (xxvii. 2);
- (2.) Where no statement of defence has been delivered, within four weeks of the appearance of the last appearing defendant (xxvii. 2).
- (b.) The defendant may not amend his statement of defence (being a defence simply) at all without leave; but he may without any leave amend his counter-

claim once,—provided he do so within the times following, that is to say,

- (1.) Where a reply has been delivered, within four days after such delivery,—the defendant not having (meanwhile) inconsistently pleaded to the reply (xxvii. 3);
- (2.) Where no reply has been delivered, within 28 (twenty-eight) days from the filing (or delivery) of his defence (xxvii. 3).
- (c.) Either party may, with leave, amend at any time his own pleading (being either statement of claim, statement of defence, or reply), for the purpose of defining the real question in dispute (xxvii. 1).
- (d.) Either party may, upon motion, obtain an adverse order against the other party to strike out or amend anything in the adverse pleading that ought to be amended or struck out, either as being scandalous, embarrassing, dilatory, or otherwise prejudicing the fair and speedy trial of the action (xxvii. 1); e.g., vague allegations of title put forward by a plaintiff, who has never been in possession of the land claimed (Phillips v. Phillips, 4 Q. B. Div. 127).

II. Consequential amendments,—

- (1.) In all cases of a previous adverse pleading being amended by either party without leave or order (as above explained), if the other party desires to amend his own pleading in consequence of such amendment in the previous adverse pleading, he may do so, but only with leave (xxvii. 5; Boddy v. Wall, 7 Ch. Div. 164; Stokes v. Grant, 4 C. P. Div. 45).
- (2.) In all the same cases, if the other party desires the amendment of the previous adverse pleading to be disallowed, either in whole or in part, or if allowed, then to be allowed upon terms only, he may obtain an order of the court to that effect (xxvii. 4).

N.B.—This provision will meet the case of the amendments made being (as they may be) inconsistent with a previous pleading of the same adverse party (xix. 19).

Generally, all amendments may be made with leave, to be obtained either upon summons or by motion (xxvii. 6), but in cases other than those above specified upon terms only (*Tildesley v. Harper*, 10 Ch. Div. 393).

Every amended pleading is to be delivered to the other party within the time allowed for amending same (xxvii. 10); and where an order giving leave to amend has been requisite and has been made, the time allowed for amendment is fourteen (14) days from the date of the order, unless some other time is specified in the order (xxvii. 7), but the time may be extended (xxvii. 7). Every amended pleading is to be marked as such (xxvii. 9), the order (if any) giving leave being also specified on the amended pleading (xxvii. 9). Usually, amendments may be interlined in writing, where they do not exceed (in any one place) 144 words, and the interlineation does not occasion intricacy and obscurity; but otherwise the pleading as amended must be reprinted (xxvii. 8).

§ 57. The Pleadings.—Close of.—So soon as either party joins issue simply upon the last preceding pleading of another party, the pleadings as between such two parties are closed; and so, if there are other parties to the action, when the like joinder of issue is delivered as between them (xxv.) So also, if a party bound to plead neither joins issue upon the last preceding pleading nor (with or without leave, as the case may require) pleads otherwise thereto, he is taken to have admitted the statements of fact in the pleading last preceding, and such admission (although not to be

made a ground of judgment for default) operates to close the pleadings (xxix. 12). In general, the pleadings close with the reply (being the third pleading in order), as that is usually a simple joinder of issue on the defendant's statement of defence: It may, however, contain new matter; and when a counter-claim is set up in the statement of defence, then the reply necessarily contains new matter (either with or without a joinder of issue upon the portion of statement of defence that is the defence proper); and whenever, in either or any of these cases, such new matter is introduced into the reply, then some pleading or pleadings must necessarily follow the reply,—either, (I.) A simple joinder of issue upon the new matter, or (2.) With the leave of the court, a pleading containing still further new matter, in answer to the new matter contained in the reply (xxiv. 2). And so on, until there is a simple joinder of issue by either party upon the last preceding pleading of the other party; and upon such ultimate joinder of issue the pleadings are said to have closed (xxv.)*

§ 58. The Pleadings.—Preparation of Issues.—The pleadings being (as already explained) simple statements of facts, it may occasionally (although of right it never should) happen that the real issue or issues in dispute between the parties are not sufficiently defined; and in that case it is necessary to define same with greater point and exactness, before going to trial. If, upon the existing pleadings, counsel is of opinion that issues should be prepared, he should move the court for an order directing their preparation, and the court in its order will provide liberty to the parties to apply to the court itself for the final settlement of the issues or any of them in case the parties themselves or their counsel cannot agree upon them (xxvi.)

^{*} See also Tabular Statement at end of this Epitome of the Practice.

§ 59. The Pleadings.—Special Case.—After writ issued, the parties (if so disposed) may concur in stating any special case, raising all or any questions of law involved in the action (xxxiv. 1); also, at any time before or at the trial, if it appear to the court that there is a preliminary question of law to be decided, and that the proof of facts is a matter subordinate thereto, the court may order the question of law to be decided on a special case or other form sufficiently raising it, and in the meantime the proof of facts is stayed (xxxiv. 2; Tasmanian Railway Co. v. Clark, W. N., 1879, p. 88).

Every special case is to be printed by the plaintiff, signed by all the parties (or their solicitors), and filed by the plaintiff (xxxiv. 3); either party may enter it (i.e., set it down) for argument, first obtaining, where married women, infants, or lunatics are concerned, an order giving leave to set it down. The order is obtained upon an affidavit or affidavits of the truth of the statements contained in the special case (xxxiv. 4, 5).

Sections 60-66.

THE EVIDENCE—THE FORMAL PROCEDURE WITH THE SUMMARY PROCEDURE INCIDENTAL THERETO.

(I.) Interrogatories.

§ 60. The Evidence.—How far obtained by Discovery.
—At the time of delivering his statement of claim (but only in suitable cases), (Harbord v. Monk, 9 Ch. Div. 616), and more properly after he has seen the defendant's statement of defence (Mercier v. Cotton, I Q. B. Div. 442; Hancock v. Guerin, 4 Exch. Div. 3), and at any subsequent time not later than the close of the pleadings, the plaintiff may without leave, and subsequently to the close of the pleadings the plaintiff may with leave, deliver Interrogatories in writing for the

examination of the defendant (xxxi. I); in like manner. at the time of delivering his statement of defence. but not before delivering same, and at any subsequent time not later than the close of the pleadings, the defendant may without leave, and subsequently to the close of the pleadings the defendant may with leave, deliver Interrogatories in writing for the examination of the plaintiff (xxxi. 1). These interrogatories should be reasonable, and not vexatious or improper (xxxi. 2), unless where they are relevant, however vexatious, scandalous, or criminal-exposing (Fisher v. Owen, 8 Ch. Div. 654). Interrogatories going to credit only are irrelevant, and should not be put (Allhusen v. Labouchere, 3 Q. B. Div. 645; Gay v. Labouchere, 4 Q. B. Div. 206); but interrogatories as to conversations may be put, subject to certain restrictions (Eade v. Jacobs, 3 Exch. Div. 335). Where either party is a corporate or other public body, the other party, if desirous of interrogating it, is to obtain at chambers an order giving him leave to administer the interrogatories to any specified member or officer of the body (xxxi. 4; and see Higginson v. Hall, 10 Ch. Div. 235).

The party interrogated is to answer by affidavit, to Answer to Inbe filed within ten days (extendible) after service of terrogatories. the interrogatories upon him (xxxi. 6); and the affidavit must answer sufficiently (xxxi. 9), or else refuse to answer one or more of the interrogatories, stating in the affidavit the objection to answering same and the grounds of such objection (xxxi. 5, Nov. 1878). sufficiency of the answer, if the interrogating party disputes same, may be decided on summons or motion specifying the particular interrogatories or part of interrogatories objected to (Austen v. N. & S. Woolwich Subway Co., II Ch. Div. 439),—and on this application the validity of the objection to answering and of the grounds of such objection can be gone into also (xxxi. 9, 10). The grounds of objection open to be taken in the affidavit in

answer are,—That the interrogatory is scandalous,—is irrelevant,—is not bonâ fide for the purpose of the action, -is not sufficiently material at the then stage of the action, and such like (xxxi. 5, Nov. 1878). And the party required to answer objectionable interrogatories may also (within four days after being served with them) apply at chambers to set them aside on the ground,— That they are unreasonable,—or vexatious,—or scandalous (xxxi. 5, Nov. 1878; Gay v. Labouchere, 4 Q. B. Div. 206). Other usual grounds of objection to answering interrogatories are those of privilege, of exposure to criminal prosecution, &c., that are open to witnesses under cross-examination. If the court decides the affidavit to be insufficient as an answer to the interrogatories or to any of them, or if no answer at all is put in, the interrogating party may obtain an order requiring the other party to put in a further answer or an answer (as the case may be),—and that either by a further affidavit or an affidavit (as the case may be) or by vivâ voce examination (xxxi. 10). At the trial of an action or of an issue, any party may use in evidence any one or more of the answers of the other side without putting in the others (xxxi. 23); but the judge may (and, of course, upon the slightest suggestion, will) look at the whole of the answers (xxxi. 13).

The affidavit if not exceeding ten folios (xxxi. 7a) may be written; but otherwise it must be printed.

Non-compliance with any order to answer interrogatories subjects the defaulting party to the possibility of an order for his attachment, and also to the possibility of an order dismissing his action (if a plaintiff) or striking out his defence (if a defendant), with all incidental consequences (xxxi. 20).

II.) Order to

On summons at chambers, unsupported (unless in of documents. exceptional cases) by any affidavit, on the application

of either party, an order will be made directing the other party to make discovery on oath of the documents relating to the action which are or which have The affidavit been in his possession or power (xxxi. 12). The of documents. plaintiff should not apply for this order, in general, until he has seen the defendant's defence (Hancock v. Guerin, 4 Exch. Div. 3). The party so ordered to make discovery complies with the order by swearing and filing an affidavit of the documents in question, in the form No. 9 in Appendix B. to the Acts (xxxi. 13); and in such affidavit he is to specify such of the documents as he objects to produce (xxxi. 13). His grounds of objection are usually,-That the documents are privileged,—or that they relate to the deponent's own title (Taylor v. Batten, 4 Q. B. Div. 85; New B. M. I. Co. v. Peed, 3 C. P. Div. 196; S. &. V. W. Co. v. Quick, 3 Q. B. Div. 315; Gardner v. Irvin, 4 Exch. Div. 49); and occasionally, that the applicant's claim to see them is inconsistent with the position he takes up as plaintiff in his action (Owen v. Wynn, 9 Ch. Div. 29; and in Tomline v. The Queen, 4 Exch. Div. 252).

So soon as the affidavit of documents has been made, (III.) Notice or occasionally before it is made, e.g., when it can be for inspection, dispensed with, either party to the action may at any &c., documents referred time before or at the trial give to the other party notice to in affidavit in writing to produce any documents referred to in his or pleading. affidavits or pleadings for the inspection of the party giving the notice, and so as that such party may take copies thereof (xxxi. 14).

The party who receives the notice to produce, is The offer within two days (if the affidavit of documents has of inspection, specified them all), or within four days (if otherwise). after receiving the notice, to notify to the other (i.e., noticing) party a time within three (3) days from the delivery of his notification, and also a place for the inspection of such of the documents as the notifying

party does not (in his notification) specify that he objects to produce: the grounds of objection must also be specified in the notification (xxxi. 16).

(IIIa.) Order to produce for inspection.

The court may at any time in a pending proceeding order, upon the application of either party, the production upon oath by the other party of such of the documents in his possession or power as the court thinks fit (xxxi. 11); and if, therefore, the party served with notice to produce omits to notify a time and place for inspection, or objects to grant inspection (In re Credit Co., 11 Ch. Div. 256), the party desiring inspection may apply for an adverse order for inspection (xxxi. 17), upon summons or by motion, supported by an affidavit showing (as regards all documents other than those referred to in the pleadings or affidavits) what the documents are, and that the applicant has a right to see them, and that they are in the possession or power of the other party (xxxi. 18). But if the court finds an objection to production stated either in the affidavit of documents or in the notification of time and place for inspection, and if the court is satisfied that the applicant's right to the inspection he asks depends on the determination of some issue or question in dispute in the action, or that it is otherwise desirable to postpone the inspection, then the court may order such issue or question to be first determined, and reserve meanwhile the right to inspection (xxxi. 19; Phillips v. Phillips, W. N., 1879, p. 96).

Enforcement of the order to produce.

Non-compliance with any order to make an affidavit of documents, or to produce documents for inspection, subjects the defaulting party to the possibility of an order for his attachment (xxxi. 20), and also to the possibility of an order dismissing his action if a plaintiff, or striking out his defence (if a defendant), with all incidental consequences (xxxi. 20).

- § 61. The Evidence.—How far Superseded by Admissions.—There are two varieties of admissions, viz., (1.) The admission of documents, and (2.) The admission of allegations contained in the pleadings.
- (1.) Regarding documents, either party may give to the other a notice to admit documents, saving all just exceptions. The other party admits the documents specified in the notice by writing at the foot thereof the words "we admit," &c., saving all just exceptions.

Nota Bene.—Documents admitted in this manner should still be put in at the trial, if they are to be used on an appeal (Watson v. Rodwell, II Ch. Div. 150).

- (2.) Regarding allegations in pleadings,—
- (a.) Every allegation in a pleading which is not denied or expressed to be not admitted in the next subsequent pleading (not being a simple joinder of issue) is deemed to be admitted (xix. 17), unless the alleged admission is something non-existing in law (Chilton v. Corporation of London, 7 Ch. Div. 735), and excepting as against a married woman, infant, or lunatic. Also,
- (b.) Where a person being bound to plead in some shape or other, does not plead either by way of joinder of issue or (with or without leave, as the case may be) by some other substantive pleading to the last preceding pleading, then he is taken to have admitted the statements of fact contained in such last preceding pleading (xxix. 12). And where issues arise between a third party and plaintiff or defendant, if any of them make default in pleading to the pleading of the other or others, then judgment may be given on the pleadings without any evidence (xxix. 13). And where a defendant has refused compliance with an order to answer interrogatories, or for discovery or inspection of documents, an order may be made striking out his defence, the effect of which would, semble, be that all the statements of fact in statement of claim would stand admitted, and

judgment might be obtained, if not for default, at least on admissions (xxxi. 20).

- § 62. The Evidence.—How far obtained by Inspection of Property.—For the purpose of obtaining full information or evidence, the court or a judge may, upon the application of any party to the action, make any order for the inspection of any property, being the subject of such action, and for that purpose may, upon the same or any further application, authorise any person or persons to enter upon or into any land or building in the possession of any party to the action, and to take samples, and to make observations, and to try experiments (lii. 3).
- § 63. The Evidence.—When Vivâ Voce.—The general rule is, that at the trial of the action, or upon any assessment of damages, the evidence shall be taken vivâ voce,—each party examining in chief his own witness, who is then subjected to cross-examination by the other side (if they should so desire), and, lastly, is re-examined (if necessary) by the party calling him (xxxvii. 1); and the Judicature Acts, or the orders or rules thereunder, have made no alterations in these respects (Act 1875, § 20), excepting that, and so far as the court is thereby enabled to permit (for special reasons) depositions or affidavits to be read at the trial.
- § 64. The Evidence.—When by Affidavit.—Upon all interlocutory applications (i.e., upon any motion, petition, or summons) in the action, the evidence may be given by affidavit (xxxvii. 2); and the evidence of any particular witness may for sufficient reasons be taken (by order) before an officer of the court (either official referee or examiner), or before a special examiner, the evidence so taken being a deposition, and the deposition being (by order) filed, and the deposition so filed being (by order) made available in evidence upon terms (xxxvii. 4); and at the trial of the action, or

upon any assessment of damages, any particular fact or facts may (by order) be proved by affidavit, but not if the witness can be produced, and the other side wishes to cross-examine him (xxxvii. I); and at the trial, or upon any assessment of damages, the entire evidence may (by agreement of all parties) be taken by affidavit (xxxvii. I). All affidavits at the hearing must be regarding matters of the deponent's own positive knowledge; but upon interlocutory applications, may be regarding matters of information or belief only, provided that the sources or grounds of the information or belief respectively are shown (xxxvii. 3), but not when an application although interlocutory in form is final in effect (Gilbert v. Endean, 9 Ch. Div. 259).

The agreement to take the entire evidence by affidavit must be in writing (New Westminster Brewery Co. v. Hannah, L. R., 2 Ch. Div. 217); but when the agreement does not exclude oral evidence, the affidavits may be supplemented, semble, at the trial by vivâ voce evidence (Glossop v. Heston & Isleworth Local Board, 26 W. R. 433). Where there is such an agreement, the plaintiff files his affidavits within fourteen days (extendible) after the agreement, and gives the defendant a list thereof (xviii. 1); and the defendant files his affidavits within fourteen days (extendible) after receiving plaintiff's list, and gives the plaintiff a list thereof (xxxviii. 2); and the plaintiff files his affidavits in reply, being STRICTLY IN REPLY to the defendant's affidavits or else merely CONFIRMATORY of previous. affidavits (Peacock v. Harper, 7 Ch. Div. 648), within seven days (extendible) after receiving defendant's list and gives the defendant a list thereof (xxxviii. 3).

All affidavit evidence (including depositions) that is used for the first time at the trial is to be printed (xxxviii. 6); but affidavit evidence (including deposi-

tions) previously used in the action need not in general be printed (Aug. 1875, ii.), unless the court so orders, but may be printed if the parties like (Aug. 1875, iii.). No order of the court, but only the consent of the parties, is required in order to use at the trial affidavits used previously on interlocutory applications (Blackburn Union v.*Brooks, 7 Ch. Div. 68).

§ 65. The Evidence.—Cross-Examination on Affidavits.—Upon interlocutory applications (i.e., on a motion, summons, or petition), the court may (but, without very sufficient reasons, will not) order the attendance for cross-examination of the person or persons making the affidavit (xxxvii. 2); and even where the court orders the attendance for cross-examination it does not follow that such attendance is to be in court; it may be, on the contrary (and usually is and ought to be), directed to be had before an examiner of the court (South Wales, &c., Steamship Co., In re, 20 Sol. Journ. 232). Where the evidence in chief is directed to be taken by deposition, it is convenient to make the cross-examination follow, so as to become part of the deposition (xxxvii. 4). At the trial of the action, or upon any assessment of damages, when (by agreement) the entire evidence is taken by affidavit, any party desiring to cross-examine the people (or any of them) who have made affidavits may, within fourteen days (extendible) after the plaintiff's affidavits in reply have been filed, serve upon the other party a notice in writing requiring the production of the people (or any of them) who have made affidavits for crossexamination on their affidavits at the trial or assessment of damages (xxxviii. 4), and the other party upon being served with such notice to produce may, by subpæna ad testificandum, compel the attendance of such witnesses accordingly (xxxviii. 5), seeing that without their attendance their affidavits cannot in general be used at all (xxxviii. 4). The costs of producing a witness for cross-examination are to be borne, at least in the first instance, by the party producing him (xxxviii. 4).

§ 66. The Evidence.—Miscellaneous Points.—

- (a.) All writs and other documents issued out of or filed in the District Registry, and all exemplifications and copies thereof, purporting to be sealed with the seal of the District Registry, are receivable in evidence in all parts of the United Kingdom without further proof thereof (Act 1873, § 61).
- (b.) As regards admissions of documents made in pursuance of any notice to admit same, the affidavit of the solicitor (or clerk) of the due signature of the admissions, shall, where such admissions are annexed to the affidavit, be sufficient evidence of such admissions (xxxii. 4).
- (c.) As regards renewals of writs of execution, the production of the writ or of the notice renewing same is sufficient evidence of the renewal, provided the writ or notice purport to be sealed with the renewal seal of the court (xlii. 17).
- (d.) Evidence may, by leave only, be taken by commission in a proper case (Stewart v. Gladstone, 7 Ch. Div. 394), and that either within or without the jurisdiction.
- N.B.—Regarding evidence on Appeals, see §§ 130-135, Appeals; and regarding evidence taken de bene esse and the perpetuation of testimony, see the Principles of Equity, pp. 603-606, supra.

Sections 67-74.

THE TRIAL.—THE FORMAL PROCEDURE WITH THE SUMMARY PROCEDURE INCIDENTAL THERETO.

- § 67. The Trial.—Venue for.—If no venue is stated in the plaintiff's statement of claim, then the venue for trial is Middlesex, subject to the judge ordering a different venue, on motion of either party, the judge's order being appealable to a Divisional Court (xxxvi. 1). If a venue other than Middlesex is stated in the plaintiff's statement of claim, then the venue for trial is that so stated, subject to the judge ordering a different venue, on motion of the defendant (and, quære, of the plaintiff even), the judge's order being appealable to a Divisional Court (xxxvi. 1).
- § 68. The Trial.—Notice of.—The plaintiff gives notice of trial, and may do so either along with his reply (when that is the close of the pleadings), or at any time afterwards (xxxvi. 3); and if the plaintiff fail for six weeks (extendible) after the close of the pleadings to give the notice, the defendant may give plaintiff the notice, provided he anticipate the plaintiff in so doing (xxxvi. 4). The notice of trial is to state whether the trial is of the action or of issues therein (xxxvi. 8). The notice is usually a ten days' notice (xxxvi. 9); short notice is four days (xxxvi. 9). notice of trial, whether the same be given by the plaintiff or by the defendant, is to specify the mode of trial intended (xxxvi. 3, 4), being one or other of the five modes of trial hereinafter specified. The notice of trial ceases to be in force, unless the action is entered for trial by one party or another within six days after the notice (xxxvi. 10a); and excepting by consent, or by leave, no notice of trial can be countermanded (xxxvi. 13). And, of course, the notice of

trial must be given before entering the action for trial (xxxvi. 10).

- § 69. The Trial.—Modes of.—There are the following modes of trial for either party to select from, viz.:—
 - (1.) Before a judge (or judges) sitting alone.
 - (2.) Before a judge sitting with assessors.
- (3.) Before a referee (official or special) sitting alone.
- (4.) Before a referee (official or special) sitting with assessors. And,
 - (5.) Before a judge and jury (xxxvi. 2).

The party giving the notice of trial has the first right of selection; if he specify trial before a judge and jury, and the question is one which (prior to the Judicature Acts) might have been tried before a judge sitting alone, then the judge may in his discretion, upon the application of the other party (by summons or on motion), direct a trial without a jury (xxxvi. 26; Rushton v. Tobin, 10 Ch. Div. 558; Spratt's Patent v. Ward & Co., II Ch. Div. 240; Singer Manuf. Co. v. Loog, 11 Ch. Div. 656); and the court will always do so, if there has been a consent to take the entire evidence at the trial by affidavit (Brooke v. Wigg, 8 Ch. Div. 510). But otherwise trial by a jury is in the option of either party, to demand as a right (Act 1875, § 22; Sugg v. Silber, L. R., I Q. B. Div. 362; Powell v. Williams, 12 Ch. Div. 234; and (in county courts) Ford v. Taylor, 3 C. P. Div. 21). And subject to such right of the party, the judge may order different questions of fact to be tried in different modes of trial, with all incidental directions (xxxvi. 6). And in matters of intricate and scientific or local examination or investigation,—of documents, accounts. and such like,—the court may peremptorily, without the consent of the parties, send same to an official or

special referee (Act 1873, § 57, explained in Clow v. Harper, 3 Exch. Div. 198), such referee being for this purpose a supernumerary officer of the court (Act 1873, § 58). If neither party has selected trial by jury, and if either party desires a mode of trial different to that specified in the notice of trial, then such party, within four days from service of notice of trial, may obtain (on motion or summons) an order directing such mode of trial as the applicant desires (xxxvi. 5). And either before or at the trial (when without a jury), the judge may direct any issue of fact to be tried by a judge and jury (xxxvi. 27); and in a trial without a jury the judge may also from time to time direct anv question or issue of fact, or partly of fact and partly of law, to be tried at nisi prius (xxxvi. 29),—the order directing such trial at nisi prius to state on its face the reason for the direction (xxxvi, 29a, Dec. 1876); but no such reason need be given in the case of a Chancery action stating no venue, and set down to be tried in Middlesex (Hunt v. City of London Real Property Co., 3 Q. B. Div. 19).

§ 70. The Trial.—Entry of Action for.—The party who gives the notice of trial is to enter the action for trial on the day of or day after the notice; and if he fail to do so, the other party may within the next four days enter the action for trial (xxxvi. 14); if neither party enter the action for trial within six days after the notice of trial, then, as regards trials in London and Middlesex only, the notice ceases to be of force (xxxvi. 10a). The party entering the action for trial is to leave two copies of the pleadings (xxxvi. 17). If the plaintiff specifies trial by jury as his selected mode of trial, the action is to be entered for trial in the Associates' office and not in the Chancery office: and if plaintiff should not have specified, but defendant should afterwards determine upon, trial by jury, the action, having meanwhile been entered in the Chancery office, will be afterwards entered in the Associates' office (Chancery Notice, Feb. 1877).*

§ 71. The Trial.—Discontinuance of Action.—When a plaintiff has become aware of any defendant's defence. whether before delivery of same, or at any time before replying thereto, he may wholly discontinue his action by delivering a notice in writing to that effect. he may, with the leave of the court, or of a judge, and upon terms, do the like at any subsequent stage of the action; such leave will not be granted as a matter of course (Stahlschmidt v. Walford, 4 Q. B. Div. 217). The discontinuance does not prejudice any subsequent action, unless in the case of leave to discontinue being required and given, one of the terms is to that effect (xxiii. 1). The plaintiff is, in each case, to pay to the defendant the costs of the action (xxiii. I), and for such costs the defendant may sign judgment (xxiii, 2). Upon any discontinuance of action, if an injunction has already been granted therein subject to the usual undertaking as to damages, the defendant may also have a reference in the action to chambers to ascertain the damages (Newcomen v. Coulson, 7 Ch. Div. 764). A cause, when entered for trial, may be withdrawn by consent of all parties, either the plaintiff or the defendant producing the requisite consent in writing (xxiii. 2α).

§ 71a. The Trial.—Countermand of Notice for.—Excepting by consent of the parties, or by leave of the court, or a judge, notice of trial cannot be countermanded (xxxvi. 13).

^{*} Actions proceeding in any District Registry may be entered for trial (in the case of Chancery actions) in the District Registry (Act 1873, § 64), and (in the case of Common Law actions) in the Associates' office, and not in the District Registry (xxxv. 1a); and apparently the Common Law rule as to entry of action in the Associates' office is to apply also to Chancery actions where plaintiff with his notice of trial specifies trial by jury as his selected mode of trial (Chancery Notice of February 1877).

§ 72. The Trial.—Non-Appearance of one or other Party at.—If the plaintiff appears and the defendant does not appear at the trial, when the action is called on, the plaintiff proves his claim so far as the burden of proof rests with him (xxxvi. 18), but the judge may postpone or adjourn the trial upon terms (xxxxi. 21).

If the defendant appears and the plaintiff does not appear at the trial, when the action is called on, the defendant (not having raised any counter-claim) may have an immediate judgment dismissing the action (xxxvi. 19), and a defendant, who has raised a counter-claim, proves such counter-claim so far as the burden of proof rests with him (xxxvi. 19), but the judge may postpone or adjourn the trial upon terms (xxxvi. 21).

In either of these cases, judgment is obtained for the party appearing; but the non-appearing party may apply within six days after trial to set aside the judgment upon terms (xxxvi. 20).

§ 73. The Trial.—Appearance of all Parties at.— Firstly,—When before a judge (or judges) without a jury, and whether sitting alone or with assessors,being the mode of trial most usual in the Chancery Division—the course of the trial is as follows:—The plaintiff's counsel (or leading counsel) opens the pleadings by shortly stating the nature and circumstances of the claim, and reading such parts of the pleadings as are calculated to bring out same more distinctly; and at this stage the judge may interrupt him by pointing out that, even if he proved all the facts of his case, the law would not give him the right he asks, or any other right: in fact, that his statement of claim might have been demurred to. Or, if the statement of claim does not clearly appear to be demurrable, then the plaintiff's counsel (or leading counsel) mentions generally what are the defences (if any) set up by the defendant, -indicating whether or not these defences would, if proved, be sufficient or not at law; and at this stage, therefore, a further discussion of the law of the case may arise,—just as if the plaintiff, instead of replying to the defendant's statement of defence, had demurred thereto.

Assuming, however, that the action is one in which the question is one of fact and of evidence principally or exclusively, then the plaintiff puts in his evidence, that is to say:—

- (a.) Where the evidence is taken by affidavit, the plaintiff's counsel reads all the affidavits of any one deponent, after which the defendant's counsel cross-examines the plaintiff's witness on his affidavits, and the plaintiff's counsel then re-examines the witness; and so on through all the witnesses for plaintiff who have made affidavits or an affidavit.
- (b.) When the evidence is taken vivâ voce, the plaintiff's counsel examines in chief each of the plaintiff's witnesses, and the defendant's counsel cross-examines the same witness, and the plaintiff's counsel re-examines him.

When in either of these two ways all the plaintiff's evidence has been put in, then,—

(I.) If the defendant mentions that he is not going to call any witnesses,—the plaintiff's counsel sums up the evidence and also points the law as applicable to the facts proved—after which (unless the court should relieve the defendant of the necessity) the defendant's counsel follows, arguing that the facts are not proved, or that the law upon the facts proved is against the plaintiff,—and in such a case, the plaintiff's counsel has no reply, beyond remarking upon the new cases (if any) which the

defendant's counsel may have cited and commented upon.

- But, (2.) If the defendant (as usually happens) mentions that he is going to call witnesses, or he has already filed affidavits,—then he puts in his evidence in like manner as the plaintiff, that is to say:—
- (a.) Where the evidence is taken by affidavit, the defendant's counsel reads all the affidavits of any one deponent,—after which the plaintiff's counsel cross-examines the defendant's witness on his affidavits, and the defendant's counsel then re-examines the witness; and so on through all the witnesses for defendant, who have made affidavits or an affidavit.
- (b.) Where the evidence is taken vivâ voce, the defendant's counsel examines in chief each of the defendant's witnesses, and the plaintiff's counsel cross-examines the same witness, and the defendant's counsel re-examines him.

When in either of these two ways all the defendant's evidence has been put in,—

- Then, (I.) Unless the plaintiff asks and is allowed to put in rebutting evidence as regards any part of defendant's case, the defendant sums up his evidence, and also comments upon the evidence generally of both plaintiff and defendant, and the general character of the case and the law as applicable thereto,—after which the plaintiff's counsel replies upon the whole case,—as well the evidence as the law (not forgetting the points which the defendant's counsel has endeavoured to make, or has succeeded in making).
- But if, (2.) The plaintiff asks and is allowed to put in rebutting evidence as regards any part of defendant's case, then with or without an adjournment of the

trial (according as the exigencies of the case require) such evidence is put in, the manner of putting it in being the same as that above described for putting in evidence generally: and thereafter the plaintiff's counsel sums up his fresh evidence, and also comments upon the evidence generally of both plaintiff and defendant, and the general character of the case, and the law as applicable thereto, replying, in fact, upon the whole case—as well the evidence as the law (not forgetting the points which the defendant's counsel has endeavoured to make or has succeeded in making, and not forgetting to remark upon, and, if possible, distinguish and explain away, any decisions which the defendant's counsel has cited and turned to some apparent advantage).

Secondly,—Where before a judge (or judges) with a jury,—being the mode of trial least usual in the Chancery Division,—the course of the trial is as follows:—

The plaintiff's counsel addresses the jury rather than the judge; and, as a general rule, instead of arguing the law of the case, he merely addresses himself to the facts, all objections of law that may be put forward by the judge being merely reserved (to be argued on some future occasion),—unless the judge, under exceptional circumstances, should consent to or require, as he may do (Act 1873, §§ 29, 30), the points of law to be argued before the evidence is gone into. In putting in the evidence, and in summing up same, and in generally commenting upon the case, the plaintiff's counsel and the defendant's counsel respectively proceed in a nearly similar manner to that adopted by them respectively at a trial before a judge without a jury (as above described), the jury being, however, the persons (judices) primarily addressed: and at the end the judge sums up the case

to the jury, unless he should (as he may) direct a nonsuit or a verdict for the defendant for want of evidence in support of the plaintiff's case (Dublin, &c., Railway Co. v. Slattery, 3 App. Ca. 1155); and the jury give their verdict, which verdict, together with the judgment (if any) then delivered, or any directions regarding judgment, are to be entered by the officer present at the trial, and whose duty it is to enter verdicts, or in his absence, by the associate (xxxvi. 22a, 23).

And at the trial by jury, the judge (it is true) may reserve any case or point in a case for the consideration of a divisional court, or may direct same to be argued before such court (Act 1873, § 46); still it is the duty of the judge,—a duty upon which any party may insist, -- at every such trial to submit and leave the issues involved in the action to the jury, and to properly and fully direct the jury upon the law and the evidence bearing upon the case (Act 1875, § 22); and so far as the reservation of any case or point in a case for the consideration of a divisional court, or the direction to argue same before such court, would be inconsistent with the duty aforesaid of the judge (or the right aforesaid of the party), no such reservation or direction is to be made or given (Act 1876, § 17); but otherwise such reservation or direction may be made or given (Act 1873, § 46, and Act 1876, § 17). In case the party should think the judge to have deprived him of this right, then he is to except, i.e., object, at the trial, and the exception is to be entered upon and annexed to the record (if any), as a foundation for some further application, viz., motion for new trial (Act 1875, § 22). See § 83, infra.

Thirdly,—When before an official or special referee, whether sitting alone or with assessors,—being a mode of trial which appears to be equally little used

in all the divisions,—the course of the trial is as follows:—

The trial before a referee is to be conducted in all respects (including the taking of evidence) in the same manner, as nearly as circumstances will admit, as a trial before a judge of the High Court,—it being, however, always borne in mind that the court, or a judge, before whom or in which the action (in respect of which the reference arises) is pending, may in any particular respect give special directions to the referee as to the mode of trial (Act 1873, §§ 57, 58; xxxvi. 30-32); but, subject to such controlling authority of the court, the referee has all the powers of the court or a judge (Act 1873, § 58; xxxvi. 31, 33), excepting the power to commit or to enforce his own orders by attachment or otherwise (xxxvi. 33). Likewise, the referee may, before the conclusion of any trial before him, or in his report, submit any question for the decision of the court, or may state facts specially, with power to the court to draw inferences therefrom; also, the court has power either (I) to require any explanation or reasons from the referee, and to remit the question or any part thereof for re-trial or further consideration either to the same or to any other referee, or (2) to decide the question itself on the evidence taken before the referee with or without additional evidence (xxxvi. 34, March 1879).

§ 74. The Trial.—Completory Proceedings Subsequent to.—All proceedings in an action subsequent to the [hearing or] trial, and down to and including the final judgment or order (not being proceedings that require a divisional court, and, of course, not being applications to the Court of Appeal), are to be had and taken, so far as is practicable and convenient, before the judge before whom the trial [or hearing] of the cause took place, (Act 1876, § 17; v. 4a, March

1879); and for the easier working of the practice in this respect (as well as for other more general reasons), every action (or other proceedings) in the High Court, and all business arising out of the same (not being proceedings that require a divisional court, and, of course, not being applications to the Court of Appeal) are to be heard, determined, and disposed of before a single judge (Act 1876, § 17).

SECTIONS 75-88.

THE JUDGMENT.—THE FORMAL PROCEDURE WITH THE SUMMARY PROCEDURE INCIDENTAL THERETO.

- § 75. The Judgment.—Various Modes and Grounds of obtaining, and Varieties of.—Judgment may be obtained in various manners and upon various grounds, that is to say,—
 - (1.) Judgment for Default of Appearance (xiii. 5-8).
 - (2.) Judgment for Default of Pleading (xxix. I-I3).
 - (3.) Judgment for Default of Appearance at Trial (xxxvi. 18, 19).
 - (4.) Judgment on Admissions in the Pleadings (xl. 11).
 - (5.) Judgment at Trial of Action (xxxvi. 22, Dec. 1876).
 - (6.) Judgment on Motion for Judgment subsequent to Trial (xl. 2, 3; 7, 8).
 - (7.) Judgment on Motion for Judgment without Trial (xl. 10).
 - (8.) Judgment on Motion for New Trial (xl. 10).
 - (9.) Judgment on Trial before Referee (xxxvi. 30-34).

Also, judgments may be either final or interlocutory,

according as no writ or some writ (or other proceeding) for the assessment of damages is necessary before such a judgment can be signed so as that execution may issue upon it; and in either case (i.e., whether the judgment is final or interlocutory), the court may reserve, in a proper case, the further consideration of the action (xl. 10, 11). And interlocutory judgment directing any necessary inquiries or accounts may be made at any stage of the action (xxxiii.), and, semble, either upon ordinary motion (the most usual course) or upon motion for judgment, notwithstanding that as regards the relief or other relief sought in the action, or the questions or other questions involved therein, it may be necessary for the action to proceed in the ordinary way (xxxiii.). And where the writ is indorsed with a claim for an ordinary account (partnership, or trust, or such like), then immediately after the time limited for appearance to the writ, whether such appearance has been entered or not, an immediate judgment for such account may be obtained (xv. I), and upon a simple summons at chambers (xv. 2).

- § 76. Judgment.—For Default of Appearance to Writ.—It is true, that in actions respecting matters exclusively assigned (Act 1873, § 34) to the Chancery Division, judgment for default of appearance cannot generally be signed, but the action is in general to proceed in the ordinary way upon the plaintiff's filing an affidavit of service of the writ (xiii. 9). There are, however, certain actions in the Chancery Division in which judgment for default of appearance may be signed, viz.:—
- (1.) In an action for the recovery of land (xiii. 7), with or without mesne profits or arrears of rent
 (xiii. 8), and with or without damages for breach of agreement (xiii. 8); e.g., a foreclosure action (Patey v. Flint, W. N., 1879, pp. 86, 100).

- (2.) In an action for the detention of goods (xiii. 6), with or without pecuniary damages (xiii. 6).
 - (3.) In an action for pecuniary damages (xiii. 6).
- (4.) In an action of debt or for liquidated damages where writ is specially indorsed (xiii. 3), and where writ is not specially indorsed (xiii. 5).
- § 77. Judgment.—For Default of Pleading.—There are various defaults of pleading upon which judgment may be obtained, and also various judgments obtainable for such defaults.
- (a.) Upon plaintiff's default to deliver (when bound to deliver) a statement of claim:—
- (1.) Judgment dismissing action with costs (xxix. I; Orrell Colliery Co., W. N., 1879, 135). Usually, however, the plaintiff will, upon terms, be allowed a short further time to deliver his statement of claim.
- (b.) Upon defendant's default to deliver a defence or demurrer to a foregoing statement of claim :—
- (2.) Such judgment as the plaintiff is entitled to on his statement of claim (xxix. 10). This is the usual judgment in an action in the Chancery Division.
- (3:) Judgment for the recovery of land (xxix. 7), with or without mesne profits or arrears of rent (xxix. 8), and with or without damages for breach of covenant (xxix. 8).
- (4.) Judgment for the value of goods detained (xxix. 4), with or without pecuniary damages (xxix. 4).
 - (5.) Judgment for pecuniary damages (xxix. 4).
- (6.) Judgment for amount of debt or of liquidated damages (xxix. 2),—whether writ specially indorsed or not.
- (c.) Upon third party's default to deliver (when bound to deliver) any pleading,—

(7.) Such judgment as upon the pleadings the opposite party is entitled to (xxix. 13).

In the second of the seven forms of judgment above enumerated, where one or some only (and not all) of several defendants are the defaulters, the plaintiff may set the action down against such defaulters either immediately upon the default or afterwards when he enters the action for trial or sets same down on motion for judgment against the other (non-defaulting) defendant or defendants (xxix. II).

Of these judgments, the first and seventh may be obtained on simple motion; but all the others can be obtained only upon motion for judgment duly set down.

The default of pleading upon which the seventh judgment is obtained will usually, if not always, be the default of third party to plead to some defendant's claim, counter-claim, or claim over, against him, as a subsidiary or secondary defendant, as these words are used respectively in §§ 37 and 38, supra.

All judgments obtained by default may usually be set aside, upon terms, where the default is satisfactorily explained or excused (*Watt* v. *Barnett*, 3 Q. B. Div. 183, 363; *Burgoine* v. *Taylor*, 9 Ch. Div. 1).

Where a party being bound to plead neither joins issue upon the last preceding pleading nor (with or without leave) pleads otherwise thereto, he is taken to have admitted the statements of fact in the pleading last preceding (xxix. 12); but this default of pleading, semble, does not entitle the non-defaulter to sign judgment (Litton v. Litton, L. R. 3 Ch. Div. 793), but operates only to close the pleadings.

- § 78. Judgment.—For Default of Appearance at Trial.—
- (a.) If defendant fails to appear at the trial when the action is called on,—judgment may be given for the plaintiff upon his proving his claim so far as the burden of proof rests on him (xxxvi. 18).
- (b.) If plaintiff fails to appear at the trial when the action is called on,—judgment simply dismissing the action (Robinson v. Chadwick, 7 Ch. Div. 878) may be given to a defendant who has not counter-claimed, without either swearing the jury (when there is one) or adducing evidence (xxxvi. 19); and judgment may be given for a defendant who has counter-claimed upon his proving his counter-claim so far as the burden of proof rests on him (xxxvi. 19).

Semble, it is not necessary for the defendant to prove in such a case that he has been served with notice of trial (James v. Crow, 7 Ch. Div. 410; and quære Cockle v. Joyce, 7 Ch. Div. 56).

§ 79. Judgment.—On Admissions in the Pleadings.
—Any party to any action may at any stage thereof obtain, on simple motion (In re Barker's Estate, 10 Ch. Div. 162), or even, semble, on summons, such order as he is entitled to, upon any admission or admissions of facts in the pleadings (xl. 11); and such order may be obtained so soon as the right of the party appears on the pleadings (xl. 11); the order may be either upon terms or absolute.

But nota bene, the admission must not be of something impossible in law (Chilton v. Corporation of London, 7 Ch. Div. 735).

Semble, judgment as on admissions is not to be obtained where any party, by omitting to join issue

with or otherwise plead to the last preceding pleading, is taken to have admitted same; but that operates merely as a close of the pleadings (xxix. 12; Litton v. Litton, L. R. 3 Ch. Div. 793).

But, where issues arise between third party and plaintiff or defendant, if any of them make default to the pleading of the other or others, then judgment may be given on the pleadings without any evidence (xxix. 13).

Also, semble, when a defendant has refused compliance with an order to answer interrogatories or for discovery or inspection of documents, upon an order being (as it may be) made to strike out his defence (xxxi. 20), judgment may thereupon be obtained, on the statement of claim as admitted, i.e., for default of defence.

Nota Bene.—An order similar to judgment on admissions in the pleadings may be obtained upon admissions in the evidence, i.e., affidavits (London Syndicate v. Lord, 8 Ch. Div. 84; Freeman v. Cox, 8 Ch. Div. 148).

§ 80. Judgment.—At Trial of Action.—

(a.) Upon the trial of an action (whether with or without a jury), the judge may at [or after] the trial direct that judgment be entered *simpliciter* for any or either party (xxxvi. 22, Dec. 1876).

[This is the usual judgment in a Chancery action (and also in an action at Common Law),—when there are disputed questions of fact, which have to be decided upon evidence. And when judgment has so been directed to be entered simpliciter, any party may apply to the Court of Appeal (xl. 4a) to set aside such judgment and to enter another judgment instead thereof (xl. 4a); and in this case no leave to apply to the Court of Appeal need be reserved in the original direction to enter judgment (xl. 4a).]

- (b.) Upon the trial of an action (whether with or without a jury), the judge may at [or after] the trial adjourn same for further consideration (xxxvi. 22, Dec. 1876).
- (c.) Upon the trial of an action (whether with or without a jury), the judge may at [or after] the trial leave any party to move for judgment (xxxvi. 22, Dec. 1876).
- (d.) Upon the trial of an action (whether with or without a jury), the judge may at the trial direct judgment to be entered for either or any of the parties subject to leave to move (General Procedure).
- (e) Where a defendant has in his defence raised any set-off or counter-claim, if, upon the trial of the action, the balance is in favour of the defendant, the judgment is to be given for the defendant for the balance (xxii. 10).
 - § 81. Judgment.—On Motion subsequent to Trial.—
- (a.) Upon the trial of an action (whether with or without a jury), where the judge has at the trial directed judgment to be entered subject to leave to move (xl. 2), in such a case the party to whom such leave has been reserved is to set down the action on motion for judgment, and is to give to the other party notice of such setting down within ten days after the trial or within the time specified in the reservation of leave (xl. 2). The notice of motion for judgment is to state the grounds of the motion; also, the relief sought; and it is to specify that the motion is pursuant to leave reserved (xl. 2).
- (b.) Upon the trial of an action (whether with or without a jury), where the judge has abstained from making any direction at the trial as to entering judgment for either party, in such a case the plaintiff may within ten days after the trial (xl. 3) set down the action on motion for judgment and give notice of such setting down to the defendant; and if the plaintiff

does not do so, then the defendant may set it down so, and give to the plaintiff notice of such setting down (xl. 3).

- (c.) Upon the trial of an action (whether with or without a jury), where the judge has directed judgment to be entered simpliciter for any party, the other party or parties may, without any leave reserved, apply to the Court of Appeal or (as the case may require) to the Divisional Court, to set aside such judgment and to enter any other judgment (xl. 4a), upon the ground that the judgment is wrong (where there is no jury) upon the finding as entered, and (where there is a jury) by reason that the finding of the jury has been wrongly entered by the judge, having regard to the findings of the jury upon the questions submitted to them (xl. 4a).
- (d.) Unless where there is other express provision to the contrary, the judgment of the court is to be obtained on motion for judgment (xl. 1). And no judgment shall be entered after a trial without the order of a court or judge (xxxvi. 22).
- (e.) Upon the trial (under any order in that behalf) of issues or an issue, the judge directs, of course, the finding only to be entered; and in such a case, the plaintiff may within ten days after the trial (xl. 7) set down the action on motion for judgment upon the findings and give notice of such setting down to the defendant; and if the plaintiff does not do so, then the defendant may set it down so, and give to the plaintiff notice of such setting down (xl. 7); and where there are several of such issues, and one or some only of them have been tried, either party (if so advised) may with leave and upon terms set down the action on motion for judgment upon the findings already found without waiting for the finding of the other issue or issues (xl. 8).

[Semble, this procedure is the course to pursue in

order to obtain judgment or other order upon the report of a referee. See § 84, infra.]

- § 82. Judgment.—On Motion without Trial.—Upon any motion for judgment, the court may adopt one or other of several courses, viz.:—
- (a.) If satisfied that it has before it all the materials necessary for finally determining the question or questions in dispute or any of them, or for awarding the relief sought, the court may give judgment accordingly (xl. 10).
- (b.) If satisfied that it has not sufficient materials before it to give such judgment as aforesaid, the court may direct the motion to stand over for further consideration, and that in the meantime such issues or questions be tried, and such accounts and inquiries be taken and made, as it chooses to direct (xl. 10).

Nota Bene.—A very large proportion of actions in the Chancery Division assume this character, or are set down as motions for judgment in order to take judgment thereon for accounts, inquiries, and the like without any trial; and almost invariably the further consideration of such actions is reserved. Also, many judgments in Chancery are obtained upon minutes of the proposed judgment passed between and assented to by the respective counsel; and other judgments both at law and in equity are obtained by consent simply (A. G. v. Tomline, 7 Ch. Div. 388).

- § 83. Judgment.—On Motion for New Trial.—Upon any motion for a new trial, the court may adopt one or other of several courses, viz.:—
- (a.) If satisfied that it has before it all the materials necessary for finally determining the question or questions in dispute, or any of them, or for awarding the relief sought, the court may give judgment accordingly (xl. 10).

And vice versa, upon application by way of appeal, the court may order a new trial to be had, instead of determining the question on the appeal (xviii. 5a, March 1879).

(b.) If satisfied that it has not sufficient materials before it to give such judgment as aforesaid, the court may direct the motion to stand over for further consideration, and that in the meantime such issues or questions be tried, and such accounts and inquiries be taken and made, as it chooses to direct (xl. 10).

[See also § 122, Motion.—For Rule or Order to show Cause.]

§ 84. Judgment.—Upon Trial before Referee.—By consent of all parties, any question or issue of fact in any civil cause or matter may be referred to a referee for him to try same, and to report the result of his trial (Act 1873, §§ 57, 58); and by compulsory order of the court or a judge, any question or issue of fact, or any question of account, in any civil cause or matter requiring either a minute examination of documents or of accounts, or a scientific or local investigation, may be referred to a referee for him to try same, and to report the result of his trial (Act 1873, §§ 57, 58). And the referee may, before the conclusion of the trial before him, or by his report, submit any question for the decision of the court, or state any facts specially, with power to the court to draw inferences therefrom (xxxvi. 34, March 1879).

In either case the report may be either adopted or set aside by the court; but if not set aside, it is equivalent to the verdict of a jury (Act 1873, § 58); and apparently judgment may be obtained upon it by subsequent motion for judgment, the judgment or order being entered in such form as the court directs (xxxvi. 34, March 1879).

And regarding such references (whether voluntary or compulsory) and such report, the court or judge has all the powers of the Common Law Procedure Act, 1854 (Act 1873, § 59); and, in addition, the court or judge either (1) may require the referee to explain or give reasons for his report, and may remit to him or to some other referee the cause or matter, or any part thereof, for re-trial or further consideration, or (2) may itself decide the question on the evidence taken before the referee, with or without additional evidence as the court may direct (xxxvi. 34, March 1879; Dunkirk Colliery Co. v. Lever, 9 Ch. Div. 20).

Nota Bene.—No compulsory reference of the entire action can be made under the Judicature Acts (Longman v. East, 3 C. P. Div. 142; Pontifex v. Severn, 3 Q. B. Div. 295; and Mellin v. Monico, 3 Exch. Div. 144).

- § 85. The Judgment.—Interlocutory Order for Account.—Where the writ is indorsed with a claim for an account (being the ordinary account of a trust or partnership, or such like), then immediately after the time limited for appearance to the writ, and upon a simple summons at chambers, supported by an affidavit stating the plaintiff's grounds of claim for the account (xv. 2), an order for the account will be made,—
- (a.) Where defendant has not appeared,—as a matter of course; and,
- (b.) Where defendant has appeared,—unless the defendant satisfies the court or a judge that the plaintiff's right to the account depends upon the decision (in his favour) of some preliminary question (xvi. 1).

The order directing the account (if any order is made) will include all usual directions (xv. 1); semble, a statement of claim is necessary in these cases (In re Huckwell, David v. Dalton, W. N., 1879, p. 86).

Also, and at any stage of the proceedings, the court or a judge will, and that either upon ordinary motion (the most usual course), or upon motion for judgment, make an interlocutory order for any necessary accounts and inquiries being taken and made, notwithstanding that, as regards the relief, or other relief, sought in the action, or the questions, or other questions, involved therein, it may be necessary for the action to proceed in the ordinary way (xxxiii.).

- § 86. The Judgment.—Where Signed for Costs only.

 (a.) Where an action is wholly discontinued by a plaintiff, or any matter involved therein is withdrawn by the plaintiff, then the defendant may (if his taxed costs are not sooner paid) sign judgment for such costs, in respect either of the total discontinuance or of the matter withdrawn (xxiii. 2).
- (b.) Similarly, semble, where the defendant is successful in defeating the plaintiff's action, and the defendant has not asked (or not succeeded in getting) any substantive or independent relief on counter-claim.
- § 87. Judgment.—Entry of.—When the court pronounces judgment, or when a judge in court does so, the judgment as entered is to be dated as of the day on which it is pronounced, and takes effect from that date (xli. 2); but in other cases, the judgment is to be dated and to take effect only as from the day that the pleadings required to be left on the entry (xli. 1) are in fact left (xli. 3).*

^{*} Of judgments, the entry is usually in the London Office; and if the action is one proceeding in the District Registry, then an office copy merely of the judgment is transmitted to the Registry to be filed

§ 88. Judgment of Non-suit.—Effect of.—In general, a judgment of non-suit is to have the same effect as a judgment for the defendant upon the merits (xli. 6), but the court may in any particular instance otherwise direct (xli. 6); also, in any case of mistake, surprise, or accident, any judgment of non-suit may be set aside upon terms (xli. 6).

Sections 89-109.

THE EXECUTION.—THE FORMAL PROCEDURE WITH THE SUMMARY PROCEDURE INCIDENTAL THERETO.

§ 89. The Execution.—Varieties of.—The varieties of writs of execution are the following:—

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(1.) Writ of Fi. Fa.;
(2.) , Elegit;
(3.) , Possession;
(4.) , Delivery;
(5.) , Sequestration;
(6.) , Attachment;
(7.) , Capias;
(8.) , Ca. Sa.
(9.) Writs assistant to other writs, viz.,—

(a.) Writ of Venditioni Exponas;
(b.) , Distringas nuper vicecomitem;
(c.) , Fi. fa. de bonis ecclesiasticis;
(d.) , Sequestrari facias de bonis ecclesiasticis;
(e.) , Assistance;

(10.) Writ of Distringas (on stock);
(11.) Charging order (on stock or shares); and,
(12.) Garnishee order.
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therein. But all orders made by the District Registrar himself, and all judgments in actions proceeding in the District Registry, which are signed by consent, or for default of appearance to writ, or of pleading, are entered in the District Registry (xxxv. 2).

- § 90. The Execution.—Judgments upon which it may issue.—These are,—
- (1.) Judgments for recovery or payment of money (xlii. 1);
- (2.) Judgments for payment of money into court (xlii. 2);
- (3.) Judgments for the recovery of the possession of land (xlii. 3), or for the delivery of the possession of land (xlii. 3);
- (4.) Judgments for the recovery of any property, other than land or money (xlii, 3); and,
- (5.) Judgments requiring any person to do (or to abstain from doing) any act other than the payment of money (xlii. 5).

The judgment need not be final, but may be interlocutory,—it being remembered that not all executions issue on all judgments (Widgery v. Tepper, 6 Ch. Div. 364; Cremetti v. Crom, 4 Q. B. Div. 225). Moreover, every order of the court or a judge may be enforced in the same manner as a judgment to the like effect (xlii. 20).

- § 91. The Execution.—The Mode of Issuing.—Produce to the proper officer either the judgment or an office copy thereof, showing the date of entry of judgment (xlii. 9). Also, file a praecipe signed by or on behalf of the party (or his solicitor) issuing it (xlii. 10), and containing the following particulars, viz.:—
 - (1.) Title of action and reference to record;
 - (2.) Date of judgment;
- (3.) Date of order (if any necessary) giving leave to issue; and,
- (4.) Names of the parties against whom (or of the firms against whose goods) the writ is to issue (xlii. 10).

The writ of execution is dated as of the day of issue (xlii. 12).

The writ of execution is to be indorsed as follows:-

- (a.) If party issue same in person, indorse a memorandum to that effect, and all particulars of his place of residence, not forgetting the number (if any) in the street (xlii. II).
- (b.) If party's solicitor issue same, indorse the name and either the residence or the office of such solicitor (xlii. 11).
- (c.) If agent for party's solicitor issue same, indorse name and either the residence or the office of the party's solicitor, and indorse also the name and residence of such agent (xlii. II).

The writ of execution (when it is for the recovery of money) is to be further indorsed with a direction to the officer to levy the sum (specifying same) due under judgment, and also interest (when interest claimed) at £4 per cent., or other (if any) the rate of interest for which the judgment was agreed (xlii. 14); but, semble, the direction does not extend to poundage, or fees, or expenses of execution, which are to be levied without any such direction (xlii. 13).

In the writ itself, that is, in the body thereof, the directions to the officer are more explicitly contained, being suited in each case to the form of writ that is wanted (whether fi. fa., elegit, or other form); and the costs (if any) recovered in the action, together with interest thereon at the rate of $\pounds 4$ per cent. per annum, computed from the date of the Taxing Master's certificate (Schroeder v. Cleugh, 46 L. J. C. P. Div. 365) are also therein particularly directed to be levied (Forms, Appendix F, Judicature Acts).

§ 92. The Execution.—The Time of Issuing.—Immediately upon entry of judgment for any sum of money, or for any costs (being first taxed), either fi. fa. or elegit may issue, unless payment of either is by the judgment deferred beyond the date of such entry (xlii. 15). But in such cases, by special order, execution may issue sooner than entry (xlii. 15), or may be stayed until any time (xlii. 15).

In judgments of other sorts, the time for doing the act is, in general, expressed in the judgment.

As between the original parties to the judgment, execution may issue at any time within six years after recovery of judgment (xlii. 18), and afterwards by leave only (xlii. 19).

No execution may issue for the first time after the expiration of twenty years after recovery of judgment.

The writ (remaining unexecuted) holds good for one year only after issue (xlii. 16), but may (before it has expired) be renewed by leave for one year more from the date of the renewal, and so on (xlii. 16); and such renewal and successive renewals have this effect, viz., the writ of execution takes effect, and is entitled to priority, as from the date of the original delivery thereof (xlii. 16).

In certain cases, a plaintiff may have judgment and execution thereon against one or more (short of all) of several defendants, and proceed with his action in the ordinary way against the other defendants; that is to say, in the following cases:—

(1.) To a writ specially indorsed (under iii. 6), with the particulars of debt or liquidated damages, judgment and execution against the non-appearing defendant or defendants (xiii. 4).

- (2.) To a writ specially indorsed as aforesaid (under iii. 6), if (after plaintiff has delivered his statement of claim) any one or more (short of all) of several defendants, having leave to defend, make default of pleading to the statement of claim, judgment and execution against such defaulting defendant or defendants (xxix. 3).
- (1a.) To a writ specially indorsed as aforesaid (under iii. 6), if one or more (short of all) of the defendants obtain leave to defend, and the other or others do not, judgment and execution against the latter or against these latter (xiv. 5).

On the other hand, in an action specially indorsed as aforesaid, execution on judgment for part, where defendant has leave to defend as to the other part of the action (xiv. 4), is to be suspended as a general rule, pending the defence as to the other part (xiv. 4); and similarly, in effect, on interlocutory judgment for default of pleading (xxix. 5), in an action for detention of goods or pecuniary damages, or both (Dennis v. Seymour, 4 Exch. Div. 80).

§ 93. The Execution.—Amount to be Levied.—The writ of execution (when it is for the recovery of money) directs (in an indorsement thereon) that the officer shall levy the sum (specifying same) due under the judgment, and shall also levy interest (where interest claimed) at £4 per cent., or other (if any) the rate of interest for which the judgment was agreed (xlii. 14); and in addition, there may be levied the poundage, and fèes, and expenses of execution (xlii. 13).

And upon every writ, the costs recovered, together with interest thereon at the rate of £4 per cent. per

annum, computed from the date of the Taxing Master's certificate (Schroeder v. Cleugh, 46 L. J. C. P. Div. 365), may likewise be levied, and are in the body of the writ expressed to be thereby directed to be levied (Forms, Appendix F, Judicature Acts).

§ 94. The Execution.—The Writ of Fi. Fa.—This is the commonest form of execution, being applicable to the seizure of personal (but not of real) property. The writ is to have the same force and effect, and is to be executed in the same manner, as before the Judicature Acts, 1873-75 (xliii. 1). And in aid of it, all the various writs that were theretofore issuable in aid of it, continue so issuable (xliii. 2).

§ 95. The Execution.—Fi. Fa. against Garnishee upon Order to attach Debts.—Execution by fi. fa. against a garnishee may issue by order of the court or a judge (xlv. 4), without any previous writ or process, to levy the amount of any judgment debt,-to the extent of the moneys or debts belonging to the judgment debtor in the hands of or owing from such garnishee (xlv. 4); and for the purpose of ascertaining such moneys or debts, the court or a judge will, upon the application of the judgment creditor, make (when necessary) an order against the judgment debtor for his examination vivâ voce before an officer of the court or special examiner (xlv. 1), and may also order the production of books and documents (xlv. 1). The garnishee may, however, forestall such execution, by appearing to the garnishee order nisi hereinafter mentioned, and paying into court the amount of the judgment debt (to the extent of such moneys or debts as aforesaid); and the court or a judge will not issue immediate execution, if the garnishee, having appeared as aforesaid, bond fide disputes the fact of any such moneys being in his hands or of any such debts being due from him to or on behalf of the judgment debtor (xlv. 5), but the

court or a judge may in that case issue such execution (xlv. 7), subject to the determination of any issue or question against or affecting the garnishee (xlv. 5), and also as against (when necessary) any third person whom the garnishee alleges to be the owner of, or to have any lien on, the moneys (if any) in his hands or the debt (if any) owing from him (xlv. 6).

The applicant applies in the first instance ex parte, upon summons or motion supported with an affidavit by himself or his solicitor (xlv. 2), and obtains a garnishee order nisi, in which order (or in some subsequent order) the court or a judge further directs the garnishee, and any such third person as aforesaid, to appear and show cause against the order nisi (xlv. 2, 6).

The effect of the garnishee order nisi is (like that of a charging order nisi) to bind, as from the date of service of the order (In re Stanhope Silkstone Collieries, II Ch. Div. 160), all [moneys and] debts [in the hands of or] owing from the garnishee to the judgment debtor (xlv. 3).

Upon failure to appear to the order requiring appearance, the garnishee order *nisi* becomes instantly absolute as against the person so defaulting, whether such defaulter be the garnishee himself (xlv. 4) or such third party as aforesaid (xlv. 6).

The garnishee is discharged,—as against the judgment debtor (xlv. 8) and also as against such third party (xlv. 7),—by any execution levied upon the garnishee (xlv. 8) and,—but, semble, only as against the judgment debtor,—by any payment made to forestall such execution (xlv. 8), even though the judgment should be afterwards reversed (xlv. 8).

[Regarding Foreign Attachment, see Levy v. Lovell, II Ch. Div. 220.]

- § 96. The Execution.—The Writ of Elegit.—Next to the writ of Fi. Fa., this is the commonest form of execution, being applicable to the seisure (paramountly) of real property and putting the judgment creditor in possession thereof, together also with (at a price) all the goods and chattels of the debtor (other than his oxen and beasts of the plough). The writ is to have the same force and effect, and is to be executed in the same manner, as before the Judicature Acts, 1873-75 (xliii. 1). And in aid of it, all the various writs that were theretofore issuable in aid of it continue so issuable (xliii. 2).
- § 97. The Execution.—The Writ of Possession.— Issues for the recovery of the possession of land (xlii. 3), or for the delivery of the possession of land (xlii. 3).
- (a.) The writ of possession, when the judgment is in form for the delivery of possession by a person in that behalf named in the judgment to another person, issues in the following manner:—

The applicant for it must have first duly served the judgment (xlviii. 2), and the possession not having been sooner delivered pursuant to the judgment, the applicant for the writ of possession then files an affidavit of service of the judgment, and of such non-delivery (xlviii. 2); and thereupon the writ of possession issues without any order (xlviii. 2).

(b.) The writ of possession, when the judgment is in form for the recovery of possession, issues as it used formerly to issue in an action of ejectment at common law (xlviii. 1), that is to say, on the fifth day in term next after the verdict, or within fourteen days after such verdict, whichever shall first happen, or (if so ordered at the trial) on any day within the fifth day

in term next after the verdict (C. L. P. Act, 1852, § 185); and before issuing execution, the proceedings in the action need not be entered on any roll, but a mere incipitur of the judgment is to be made on paper (C. L. P. Act, 1852, § 206). [See generally, 2 Chitty's Practice, 12th ed. pp. 1044-1047; also, § 136, infra.]

§ 98. The Execution.—The Writ of Delivery.—Issues for the recovery of any property other than land or money (xlii. 4).

It issues and is enforced in the manner in which it used formerly to issue and be enforced in an action of detinue at common law (xlix.), that is to say, it issues only by leave of the court (C. L. P. Act, 1854, § 78), and directs the sheriff to deliver the specific property (if it can be found) and (if it cannot be found) then to distrain all the lands and chattels of the defendant until he do render up the specific property, or until the assessed value of such specific property is obtained (C. L. P. Act, 1854, § 78), the costs being levied on the same or on some subsequent several execution (C. L. P. Act, 1854, s. 78). [See generally I Chitty's Practice, 12th ed. pp. 710-713.]

- § 99. The Execution.—The Writ of Attachment.—No writ of attachment is to be issued without leave (xliv. 2); the leave is to be obtained on motion upon notice (xliv. 2). A writ of attachment may issue in any of the following cases:—
- (1.) To enforce the doing, or forbearing from, any act (other than the payment of money) ordered to be done or forborne (xlii. 5).
- (2.) To enforce the payment into court of money ordered to be so paid,—in any case in which imprisonment for debt is authorised by law (xlii. 2; Debtors' Act, 1869, §§ 4-7).

(3.) To enforce the recovery of any property not being either land or money (xlii. 4).

The writ of attachment has the same effect as the old writ of attachment in Chancery (xliv. 1),—that is to say, the person when once attached (i.e., taken and put into prison, or, if already in prison when found, then detained further in prison) cannot be bailed out, but must remain in prison until he has cleared his contempt by performing the act required of him (or, in a proper case, expressing contrition for his contempt), and by paying (unless a pauper) the costs of the contempt.

Notâ Bene.—The writ of attachment is not a penal writ; therefore it is relievable under Debtors' Act, 1878 (Barrett v. Hammond, 10 Ch. Div. 285); and in a proper case, the court will, in lieu of committal, i.e., attachment, direct payment of the debt by instalments (Esdaile v. Visser, W. N., 1879, p. 52; Dillon v. Cunningham, L. R., 8 Exch. 23; Hewitson v. Sherwin, L. R., 10 Exch. 53).

Attachment may issue against a solicitor (for misconduct in an action) in the following cases:—

- (1.) Where he has given a written undertaking to appear on behalf of a defendant to the writ of summons, and does not enter such appearance accordingly (xii. 14). And,
- (2.) Where he has been served with an order against his client for discovery or inspection of documents, and he neglects [inexcusably] to bring the order to the notice of his client (xxxi. 22).

Any party failing to comply with an order to answer interrogatories, or to make discovery or inspection of documents, is liable to attachment (xxxi. 20);

and service of the order, or a true copy thereof, but not an imperfect copy (*In re Holt*, W. N., 1879, p. 48), on his solicitor is sufficient service to found an application for the attachment (xxxi. 21).

A referee cannot enforce any of his orders by attachment (xxxvi. 33); and neither can a master (liv. 2); and neither can a district registrar (xxxv. 4, and liv. 2).

- § 100. The Execution.—The Writ of Sequestration.
 —A writ of sequestration may issue without leave (xlvii.) in the following cases:—
- (1.) To enforce the doing of any act (other than the payment of money into court) ordered to be done within a limited time (xlvii.).
- (2.) To enforce the payment of money into court ordered to be so paid within a limited time (xlvii.).
- (3.) To enforce the recovery of any property not being either land or money (xlii. 4).

The order sought to be enforced must have been served, and the time specified in the order must have expired before the writ can issue (xlvii.); nor can a sequestration issue, semble, unless to a previous writ of attachment the sheriff has made a return of non est inventus (§ 106, infra), or unless it issue under § 8 of Debtors' Act, 1869, or unless the court has been asked, and has refused, to issue a previous attachment (Sprunt v. Pugh, 7 Ch. Div. 567).

The writ of sequestration has the same effect as the old writ of sequestration in Chancery; and the dealing by the court with the proceeds of the sequestration is also still the same (xlvii.), that is to say, the sequestrators appointed (usually *four* in number) enter upon the real estate, and receive and sequestrate and take

the rents and profits thereof, and also all the personal estate of the person who has disobeyed the order of the court, and who is in contempt for so doing; and the court may subsequently direct a sale of the goods or any of them, and will also direct the application of all rents and of the proceeds of all sales. The sequestrators are accountable to the court.

§ 101. The Execution.—The Writ of Capias.—This writ may still issue under the new practice (xlii. 6), but only in cases in which, and for purposes for which, it would have been issuable before the commencement of that practice, that is to say,—

It is issued (no longer as a means of commencing an action, but) after the commencement of the action, and upon the application of the plaintiff only (Williams v. Griffith, 3 Exch. 584), and by leave of the judge, in cases where the cause of action amounts to £50 and the defendant is about to quit England (I and 2 Vict., c. IIO, § 3; and Debtors' Act, I869, and Absconding Debtors' Act, I870; and see Ex parte Gutierrez, in re Gutierrez, II Ch. Div. 289). The form of writ prescribed by I and 2 Vict., c. IIO, § 3, must be rigorously adhered to. [See generally I Chitty's Practice, I2th ed. pp. 765-777.]

§ 101a. The Execution.—The Writ of Capias ad Satisfaciendum.—This writ (commonly called Ca. Sa.) is nowhere mentioned in the Acts or Orders or Rules, but appears to be included among the general words (xlii. 23). [See generally I Chitty's Practice, 12th ed., pp. 694-710; and Debtors' Act, 1869, and Absconding Debtors' Act, 1870.]

^{§ 102.} The Execution.—Writs Assistant to other Writs.

⁽a.) Venditioni Exponas, the writ of, issues where

the sheriff upon an execution by fi. fa. has taken goods, and he returns that he has taken same, but that they remain in his hands for want of buyers. The writ is really only a direction to the sheriff to go on in a particular manner, and do his duty at all costs and hazards (I Chitty's Practice, 12th ed. pp. 678, 679).

- (b.) Distringas nuper vicecomitem, the writ of, issues to the successor in office of a sheriff, when the previous sheriff has returned that he has taken goods, and that same remain in his hands for want of buyers; and it directs the new sheriff to distrain the old (nuper) sheriff (vicecomitem) so as to compel him to do his duty by effecting a sale at all costs and hazards (I Chitty's Practice, I2th ed. pp. 679, 680).
- (c.) Fi. Fa. de bonis Ecclesiasticis, the writ of, issues where the sheriff has returned upon an ordinary fi. fa. that the debtor is a beneficed clerk, and is directed to the bishop of debtor's diocese, and the bishop executes the writ forthwith by appointing sequestrators of the profits of the benefice (2 Chitty's Practice, 12th ed. pp. 1283, 1284).
- (d.) Sequestrari Facias de bonis Ecclesiasticis, the writ of, issues (at the option of the creditor) in lieu of the writ of Fi. Fa. de bonis ecclesiasticis, and in the like case; it commands the sheriff to enter into the rectory and parish church, and sequester the profits thereof, and also all other the ecclesiastical goods of the debtor (2 Chitty's Practice, 12th ed. p. 1284).
- .(e.) Assistance, the writ of, may issue (at the option of the plaintiff) in lieu of the writ of attachment, where a decree or order directing possession of property to be given has been disobeyed. The writ is directed to the sheriff, who is to put the plaintiff into the possession; and no demand of possession prior to issuing the writ is necessary. The writ issues with leave only, to be obtained on ex parte motion (see I Dan. Ch. Pract., 5th ed. 923, 924).

§ 103. The Execution.—Writ of Distringas on Stock.—Issues out of the London office, out of which writs of summons are issued (xlvi. 2). Any person may issue it who claims to be interested in any stock transferable at the Bank of England standing in the name of any other person (xlvi. 2). The writ issues upon filing an affidavit swearing to the interest of the applicant, and identifying the stock (Morgan's Chanc. Acts, 5th ed. p. 586; 5 Vict., c. 5, § 5).

[N.B.—Under the 4th section of 5 Vict., c. 5, an injunction in the nature of, but much more efficacious than, a writ of distringas, may be obtained summarily in the Chancery Division against, not only the Bank of England, but any public company whatsoever, to restrain the transfer of (or the payment of dividends upon), not only any stock, but also any shares, in the books of such bank or company.]

§ 104. The Execution.—Order Charging Stock or Shares.—May be obtained from any Divisional Court, or from any judge (xlvi. 1), or even, so far as it is nisi, from a Master (liv. 2a, Nov. 1878). The order is obtained in the following manner:-The applicant applies ex parte for a rule to show cause (I & 2 Vict., c. 110, § 14), and a rule or order nisi is at once made, upon an affidavit identifying the stock or shares, and verifying the fact of an unsatisfied judgment having been recovered against the party beneficially entitled to the stock or shares, whether the same stock or shares are standing in his (the judgment debtor's) own name, or in the name of a trustee for him (1 & 2 Vict., c. 110, §§ 14, 15), or in the name of the Paymaster-General, as a trustee for him (3 & 4 Vict., c. 82, § 1), and the affidavit also, of course, makes out the right of the judgment debtor to the stock or shares in question, such interest being either in possession or

in reversion, and either vested or contingent (3 & 4 Vict., c. 82, § 1).

The judgment debtor must show cause against the order *nisi* within the time specified in the order; and if he fail to show cause at all, or do not show enough cause against it, the order is made absolute, upon proof of notice of the order *nisi* (I & 2 Vict., c. IIO, § I5).

Nota Bene.—An order charging stock or shares cannot be made absolute where the judgment debtor is dead when the order nisi is obtained (Finney v. Hinde, 4 Q. B. Div. 102).

§ 105. The Execution.—Garnishee Order.—The applicant for this order applies in the first instance ex parte upon summons or motion supported with an affidavit by himself or his solicitor (xlv. 2), and obtains a garnishee order nisi,—being an order charging, to the extent (at least) of the judgment debt, all moneys belonging to the debtor in the hands of the garnishee and all debts owing from the garnishee to the debtor. If necessary for the purposes of discovery, the court or a judge will, upon the application of the judgment creditor, make an order against the judgment debtor for his examination vivâ voce before an officer of the court or special examiner, and for the production of books and documents (xlv. 1).

The effect of the garnishee order *nisi* is (like that of a charging order *nisi*) to bind, as from the date of service of the order (*In re Stanhope Silkstone Collieries*, I I Ch. Div. 160), all [moneys and] debts [in the hands of or] owing from the garnishee to the judgment debtor (xlv. 3).

The garnishee order *nisi* may be made absolute in the following manner:—

- (1.) If the garnishee do not appear to the order requiring him to appear and show cause against the order nisi, then that order is made absolute at once (xlv. 4).
- (2.) If the garnishee do appear to such order requiring his appearance, and bond fide disputes the fact of any moneys belonging to the judgment debtor being in his hands, or any debts being due from him (the garnishee) to the judgment debtor (xlv. 5), or alleges some third person to be owner of or to have some lien on such moneys or debts (xlv. 6),—then as against such third person not appearing (when duly notified so to do), and also as against such third person duly appearing, and as against the garnishee, the order is made absolute, subject to the determination of any issue or question between the garnishee and the judgment debtor and the (appearing) third person (xlv. 7).

The garnishee paying under any garnishee order (semble, whether nisi or absolute) is thereby discharged to the extent of such payment, as against the judgment debtor, even though the judgment should be afterwards reversed (xlv. 8).

Nota Bene.—A garnishee order does not issue on judgment dismissing action for want of prosecution (Cremetti v. Crom, 4 Q. B. Div. 225), nor against proceeds of judgment paid into County Court as a debt due from the Registrar of that Court to the judgment debtor (Dolphin v. Layton, 4 C. P. Div. 130).

§ 106. The Execution.—Order of Issuing Divers Writs.—Nothing in the Judicature Acts and rules is to affect the order in which writs of execution may be issued (xlii. 24). That order has already appeared in the preceding sections.

§ 107. The Execution,—Leave to Issue.—When

judgment is subject to any condition or contingency, upon fulfilment of the condition or happening of the contingency, the party entitled to the judgment is to demand satisfaction thereof from the other party liable thereto (xlii. 7); and failing such satisfaction, he may obtain leave from the court or a judge to issue execution on the judgment,—either as a matter of course (when the court or judge is satisfied that the right to execution has arisen), or (when the court or judge is not so satisfied), subject to the determination of any issue or question between the parties (xlii. 7).

Also, when judgment has been obtained against partners in the name of the partnership firm, an order may be made giving leave to issue execution against any person as a member of the firm (where the court or judge is satisfied that such person is a member of the firm), or (where the court or judge is not so satisfied) subject to the determination of any issue or question between the parties (xlii. 8). But upon such a judgment no such leave is requisite to issue execution,—either (1) against the partnership property; or (2) against any person who on the pleadings is admitted to be a partner, or who has been adjudged to be one; or (3) against any person who has failed to appear to the writ of summons served upon him as a partner (xlii. 8).

Immediately upon entry of judgment for any sum of money or for any costs (being first taxed), either fi. fa. or elegit may issue, in general; and by special order, such execution may issue even before entry of judgment (xlii. 15).

As between the original parties to the judgment, execution may issue at any time within six years after recovery of judgment (xlii. 18), and afterwards by leave of the court or a judge only (xlii. 19); and

although less than six years may have elapsed, if there has been any change by death or otherwise either in the parties entitled or in the parties liable to the execution, then an order of the court or a judge giving leave to issue the execution becomes necessary, and such order will be made immediately (if the court or a judge is satisfied that the applicant is entitled to it), or (if the court or a judge is not so satisfied) the order will be made, subject to any issue or question being first determined between the parties (xlii. 19).

No writ of attachment issues without the leave of the court or a judge, to be applied for on notice to the party (xliv. 2).

§ 108. The Execution.—Leave to Renew and Renewal of.—The writ (if once issued) holds good (if it remains unexecuted) for one year only after issue, but may (before it has expired) be renewed by leave of the court or a judge for one year more from the date of the renewal, and so on (xlii. 16).

The renewal is effected either by sealing the writ of execution itself with a renewal seal (xlii. 16), or by sealing with such seal a written notice of renewal signed by the party (or his solicitor), and delivering same, as so sealed, to the sheriff (xlii. 16).

§ 109. The Execution.—Order to Stay.—Immediately upon entry of judgment for any sum of money or for any costs (being first taxed), either fi. fa. or elegit may issue, in general; but by special order, either of such executions may be stayed until any time (xlii. 15). The application for the order to stay proceedings pending appeal is to be made in the first instance to the High Court (A. G. v. Swansea Tramways

Co., 9 Ch. Div. 46, explaining Cooper v. Cooper, 2 Ch. Div. 492; and see The Khedive, W. N., 1879, 166), and is appealable.

And generally, upon the ground of facts which have arisen too late to be pleaded (and which would formerly have been the subject of a proceeding auditâ querelâ), any party liable to execution on any judgment given against him may have an order staying the execution (xlii. 22).

SECTIONS 110-117.

PROCEEDINGS IN CHAMBERS AND IN DISTRICT REGISTRIES, ALL BEING SUMMARY.

§ IIO. Chambers.—Modes of Proceeding in.—Every application at Chambers is to be made by summons (liv. I); and many people not parties to the action may have a right (or obtain leave) to attend proceedings in Chambers (Sharp v. Lush, IO Ch. Div. 468).

§ III. Chambers.—References to and from, and Appeals from.—The Chief Clerk (or the Master) may refer a matter to the Judge (being a matter which he thinks proper for the Judge), and the Judge may either decide the matter, or (which he rarely does) refer same back to the Chief Clerk (or Master) with directions (liv. 3).

In the Chancery Division, the applicant at Chambers has a right to bring the matter of his application before the Judge personally, so that, in that Division, there is no appeal (properly so called), but an instant reference from the Chief Clerk to the Judge at Chambers; but in the Common Law Divisions, appeal from order or decision of Master lies to Judge by summons, *i.e.*, at Chambers, within four days; either the Master or the Judge will extend time for this appeal (liv. 4). An

appeal or further appeal (as the case may be) lies from the Judge at Chambers to the court, on motion, within eight days (liv. 6), that is to say, orders (not being discretionary) made by any Judge at Chambers may be appealed or (as the case may be) further appealed by motion upon notice to the Judge in Court (in the Chancery Divisions) or to a Divisional Court (in the Common Law Divisions); and, thereafter, they become appealable to the Court of Appeal (Act 1873, § 50); and such orders may, by leave of the Judge, or of the Court of Appeal, be appealed direct from Chambers to the Court of Appeal (Act 1873, § 50; and see §§ 130—135, infra).

In the Chancery Division, the Court is in the habit of referring to Chambers the following matters:—

Generally, any matter (which in the Judge's opinion) can be more conveniently disposed of in Chambers (Master in Chancery Abolition Act, 1852, § 27), and particularly the prosecution of accounts and inquiries directed to be taken or made by any order in an action, and whether the same be the entire substance of the order, or only ancillary to working out the order; whether—

- (1.) In action for administration of estate, or for execution of the trusts of a deed; or,
- (2.) In actions of foreclosure or of redemption of mortgages; or,
- (3.) In actions for partition of real estate, or for sale in lieu thereof; and so forth.

And conversely the Judge may adjourn from Chambers into Court any matter which, in his opinion, would be better heard in Court (Master in Chancery Abolition Act, 1852, § 27).

[In the Common Law Divisions, the following matters were taken in Chambers,—before a Master: Generally (under the "Despatch of Business Act," 30 & 31 Vict., c. 68), such matters as the Judge at Chambers might himself attend to, other than matters relating to the liberty of the subject; and particularly, such matters as were prescribed in the Regula Generalis of Michaelmas Term, 1867, other than and except (unless by consent) the matters therein excepted (Day's Common Law Procedure, 4th ed. pp. 527-528).]

§ II2. Chambers.—Proceedings in.—Wherever the rules of procedure express (and they do so passim) that any application may be made to the Court "or a Judge," then if the application is made "to a Judge," it may be made to him sitting at Chambers, and in that case it should be made by summons, supported in general with an affidavit or affidavits. The business transacted at Chambers by the Judge and his officers may be mapped out in the following manner:—

Any Judge of the High Court may (subject to any rules of court) exercise in Chambers all or any part of the jurisdiction by the Judicature Act vested in the High Court in respect of all such causes and matters, and in respect of all such proceedings in any causes and matters, as before the Judicature Act he might have heard in Chambers, or as he is or may be directed or authorised by any rules of court to hear in Chambers (Act 1873, § 39).

Under this general heading would fall the following applications:—

(1.) Generally, all matters, which (without detriment to the public advantage) can be heard in Chambers (Master in Chancery Abolition Act, 1852, § 11; and Despatch of Business Act, 1867); and as (in Chancery) there is no distinction between the Judge and his Chief Clerk

like to that which exists (at Common Law) between a Judge and a Master, but every applicant in Chambers has a right to see the Judge himself upon no matter how trivial or how important an occasion, it is unnecessary to distinguish in the Chancery Division between matters to be transacted at Chambers before a Chief Clerk and those to be transacted there before the Judge; but, on the contrary, every proceeding in Chambers may, in the first instance, be taken before the Chief Clerk, and thereupon, either immediately or ultimately (if necessary), be referred to the Judge.

- (2.) Particularly, the following applications:—
 - (a.) For extensions of time to plead, or to do any other act for which time is extendible.
 - (b.) For leave to amend the writ or pleadings.
 - (c.) For orders for production and inspection of documents, and for inspection of property.
 - (d.) For appointment of guardians ad litem in the case of infants and lunatics not so found, being defendants.
 - (e.) For leave to issue and to serve writ of summons out of jurisdiction.
 - (f.) For order to take ordinary account (xv. 2) where writ is expressly indorsed (under iii. 8) with claim for account.
 - (g.) For final judgment where writ is specially indorsed with particulars of debt or liquidated demand.

[But, in the Common Law Divisions there exists a real distinction between the Master and the Judge at Chambers, and an appeal properly so called lies (within four days) from the Master to the Judge, besides an immediate or ultimate reference; and under the Judicature Acts, 1873-75, it is provided that the Master

shall not have jurisdiction in the following particular matters; that is to say:—

- (1.) Matters relating to criminal proceedings or to the liberty of the subject;
- (2.) Removal of actions from one division or judge to another division or judge;
 - (3.) The settlement of issues;
- (4.) Discovery by way of inspection of property (liv. 2, and 2α, November 1878);
 - (5.) Appeals from District Registrars;
- (6.) Interpleader, where judgment is to be final and summary by consent, or when the matter being of less value than £50, the judgment is to be final and summary at the request of one of the parties (liv. 2a, November 1878);
 - (7.) Prohibitions;
 - (8.) Injunctions and other like interim orders;
 - (9.) Awarding of costs;
 - (10.) Reviewing taxation of costs; and
 - (II.) Acknowledgments of married women.

Nota Bene.—By consent of the parties, the Master may settle issues (liv. 2), and may also grant discovery by way of inspection of property, and may exercise the summary final jurisdiction in interpleader (liv. 2α , November 1878); and without any such consent, he undertakes ordinary practice matters in interpleader (liv. 2), and may make orders nisi charging stock or shares (liv. 2α , November 1878), and may grant discovery otherwise than by inspection of property (liv. 2α , November 1878).

N.B.—Many of the above particularised matters may be also done (and more usually are done) in Court, i.e., upon motion, the Judicature Acts and Rules expressing in general that the application may be to the Court or a Judge, i.e., in open Court or at

Chambers, although occasionally they prescribe an application by summons only (xiv. I, 2; xv. I, 2); the Court may, however, always check the improper use of motions instead of summonses by allowing only such costs of the motion as would have become payable if the proceeding had been taken by summons; but, nota bene, no foreclosure decree can be obtained on summons (Lloyd v. David Lloyd & Co., 26 W. R., 572; 6 Ch. Div. 339).

§ II3. District Registries.—Modes of Proceeding in.—Every application to a District Register is to be by summons (xxxv. 5) with or without affidavits.

District Registries.—References to and from, and Appeals from.—The District Registrar may refer a matter to a judge (being a matter which he thinks proper for the judge), and the judge may either decide the matter, or refer same back to the District Registrar with directions (xxxv. 6),—every such reference to and by, being to and by the judge to whom the action is assigned (xxxv. 10). The court may also order any books or documents to be produced, or any accounts to be taken, or any inquiries to be made, in the District Registry or by the District Registrar. The result of the accounts and inquiries is to be reported by the District Registrar to the judge, who may or may not act upon the report (Act 1873, § 66).

Appeal from order or decision of District Registrar is to judge, within four days,—even in cases of jurisdiction by consent (xxxv. 7); either the District Registrar or the judge will extend time for this appeal (xxxv. 7).

§ 104. District Registries.—Proceedings in.—As above expressed, a writ of summons may in all Chancery actions issue out of any District Registry (§ 6.n., supra), and appearance thereto may also be entered in such

registry (§ 17.n., supra). And where, from the appearance being there entered or otherwise, the action proceeds accordingly in the District Registry, and is not removed therefrom into the High Court (§ 115, infra), or by reason of some motion being made in the High Court the case is not thereby removed into the High Court (Dyson v. Pickles, W. N., 1879, p. 12), then the following proceedings (subject to the court or a judge otherwise ordering) may be taken in the District Registry, that is to say:—

All proceedings down to and including final judgment (where plaintiff entitled to enter same by consent or for default of appearance) (Act 1873, § 64), and down to and including order for account (where plaintiff entitled to enter same by consent or for default of appearance or of pleading), and down to and including interlocutory judgment (where plaintiff entitled to enter same for default of appearance (xiii. 6) or of pleading) (xxix. 4, 5), together with final judgment thereon (when damages assessed), may be taken in the District Registry,—subject always to the court otherwise ordering (xxxv. 1a); but wherever a judgment or order is not capable of being entered as aforesaid, but a trial or motion for same must first be had or made (Irlam v. Irlam, L. R. 2 Ch. Div. 608), then all proceedings down to and (in Chancery actions) inclusive of (Act 1873, § 64) but (in Common Law actions) exclusive of (xxxv. 1a) entry for trial. And all pleadings and other documents requiring to be filed are to be filed inthe District Registry (xix. 29). All orders made by the District Registrar, and requiring to be entered (including all judgments by consent or by default as aforesaid) are to be entered in the District Registry; but judgments and orders made by a judge are entered in London, and merely an office copy thereof is filed in the District Registry (xxxv. 2); also, in a Chancerv action, all certificates of the Chief Clerk and Taxing

Masters, and all affidavits and other documents (required to be filed) used in London before the judge in Chambers or before any Taxing Master or Referee of the court, and not already filed in the District Registry. are to be filed in the London office, and only office copies thereof are (if the judge directs) to be transmitted to the District Registry (xix. 29a, March 1879). Upon all judgments entered in the District Registry, costs may be taxed there also; and upon such judgment, and also upon all orders entered in the District Registry, execution may issue from the District Registry to enforce them (xxxv. 3). And for the purposes aforesaid, the District Registrar may exercise all the authorities of a judge at Chambers (xxxv. 4) other than and except in respect of the following matters; that is to say:-

- (1.) Matters affecting the liberty of the subject;
- (2.) Transfer of actions from division to division or from judge to judge;
 - (3.) Prohibitions;
- (4.) Injunctions, whether under Act 1873, § 25, sub-sect. 8; or under lii. 1, 2, 3.
- (5.) Awarding costs in proceedings not before himself;
 - (6.) Reviewing taxation of costs;
 - (7.) Charging orders;
 - (8.) Acknowledgments of married women; and,
- (9.) Leave for service of writs of summons or of notice in lieu thereof out of jurisdiction (xxxv. 4; and liv. 2 and 2a).

Nota Bene.—Order liv. 2a, November 1878, has no application, semble, to the District Registries, so as to enlarge their jurisdiction, like as the Master's jurisdiction has been thereby enlarged, sed quære.

 \S 115. District Registries.—Removal from, into High

Court.—The District Registrar may refer to a judge of the High Court for his decision any matter arising in an action that is proceeding in the District Registry (xxxv. 6),—but this reference is scarcely a removal, as the matter comes back decided or with directions for its decision (xxxv. 6), and in the meantime the action has remained in the District Registry.

Removal, properly so called, from District Registry into High Court is authorised in the following cases:—

- (1.) The removal is of right on the part of a defendant where the writ is not specially indorsed (xxxv. 11), unless the defendant asking removal is merely formal (xii. 5; xxxv. 12);
- (2.) The removal is also of right on the part of a defendant (where writ of summons is specially indorsed under iii. 6) in either of the following cases:—
- (a.) Where plaintiff within four days after appearance of defendant does not apply (under xiv. 1a) for an order to sign final judgment on affidavit of no defence (xxxv. 11); or
- (b.) Where plaintiff has so applied, but defendant has obtained leave (under xiv. 5) to defend (xxxv. 11).
- (3.) The removal is in the discretion of the court in all other cases, on the application of either plaintiff or defendant; and apparently either the judge or the District Registrar may in this group of cases order the removal (xxxv. 13); but only the judge in the first and second groups, supra (Act 1873, § 65).
- § 116. District Registries.—Removal into, from High Court.—Any party to an action proceeding in London may obtain an order, but not as of right, from the court or judge to remove the action from the High

Court (i.e., from London Chambers) into the District Registry (xxxv. 13).

§ 117. District Registrars.—Jurisdiction of Court over.—The District Registrar is an officer of the Supreme Court (in its High Court as well as its Appeal Court divisions), and as such is subject to the control of the court (Act 1875, § 13; xxxv. 9).

SECTIONS 118-126.

MOTIONS AND SUMMONSES.—THE VARIOUS PROCEEDINGS BY, ALL BEING SUMMARY.

§ 118. Motions.—The Various Occasions for, in an Action.—All applications to a Divisional Court or to a Judge in Court are to be made by motion (liii. 1); and all appeals to the Court of Appeal are likewise to be made by motion, being called appeal-motions when made in respect of any interlocutory order, and being called appeals simply when made in respect of any judgment, final or interlocutory (lviii. 2). All applications for a new trial are to be made by motion, and that ex parte in the first instance (xxxix. 1a), the motion being made to a Divisional Court where the trial has been before a Judge and Jury (Davies v. Felix, W. N., 1878, p. 210), and being made to the Court of Appeal where the trial has been before a Judge without a Jury (xxxix. 1, Dec. 1876) Judgment may also be obtained on motion; but this motion is properly called motion for judgment, at least in the general case.

But, besides these greater occasions for moving the Court, there are innumerable other occasions of a lesser but more constant character; that is to say:—

- (I.) The interim preservation, detention, or custody of property (lii. I, 3);
- (2.) The sale of goods, &c., of a perishable, &c., character (lii. 2);
- (3.) The prevention by injunction of certain wrongful acts (Act 1873, § 25, sub-sect. 8), wherever "just and convenient" that an injunction should issue (Beddoes v. Beddoes, 9 Ch. Div. 89; Day v. Brownrigg, 10 Ch. Div. 294; Shaw v. Earl of Jersey, 4 C. P. Div. 120; and distinguish Crowle v. Russell, 4 C. P. Div. 186);
- (4.) The appointment of a receiver of estates (Act 1873, § 25, sub-sect. 8);
- (5.) The dismissal of action for want of prosecution (xxix, I; xxxvi. 4a); and,
 - (6.) The writ of attachment, application for (xliv. 2).

A primâ facie case being made out by the applicant for any of the first four of these orders, the motion may be made at any time, and (in general) either by the plaintiff or by the defendant (lii. 4, 5).

§ 119. Motions.—When they may be ex parte.— Every motion for a rule or order to show cause in any action may be made ex parte, i.e., without notice to the other side (xxxix. 1a); but a rule or order to show cause is not to be granted in any action unless it is expressly authorised by the new rules of procedure (liii. 2), that is to say, upon motion for a new trial (xxxix. 1a), or for an order of revivor (l. 4; § 39, supra); or unless the rule or order is made in some proceeding "other than an action" (i. 3), and that course would have been previously the right course to take (Re Phillips v. Gill, L. R. 1 Q. B. Div. 78; In re Landore Siemens Steel Co., 10 Ch. Div. 489). Also, plaintiff may move ex parte for an injunction or receiver, or both (lii. 4), although it is more usual in such cases to move upon notice; and no injunction should be granted on ex parte motion, when there is a motion on notice pending (Graham v. Campbell, 7 Ch. Div. 490). Also, upon an application for a charging order on stock or shares (xlvi. I), the application is, in the first instance, ex parte, for an order to show cause only (1 & 2 Vict., c. 110, § 15); and so likewise upon an application for a garnishee order (xlv. 2). Also, where the motion should, in the ordinary case, be upon notice, a motion may be made ex parte, upon satisfying the Court or Judge that the delay which would arise from giving notice of motion would or might entail irreparable or serious mischief (liii. 3). Also, a motion may be ex parte, where, by the old practice, the rule or order would have been ex parte absolute in the first instance (liii, 3). subject, nevertheless, to any express provision in the New Rules of Procedure to the contrary, e.g., rule for attachment for non-payment of costs on Master's allocatur was formerly ex parte absolute in first instance (Chitty's Practice, p. 1717), but every attachment is now obtainable on notice only (xliv. 2).

§ 120. Motions.—Service of Notice of.—Excepting in the cases specified in § 119, supra, in which motions may be made ex parte, i.e., without notice, no motion is to be made without previous notice thereof to the other side (liii. 3; Delmar v. Freemantle, 3 Exch. Div. 237). The notice of motion is to name the day on which (or so soon thereafter as possible) it is intended to bring on the motion; and between the day so named and the service of the notice of motion, two clear days must intervene (liii. 4), but the Court may give special leave to serve the notice of motion for an earlier day (liii. 4), in which case the notice of motion is to mention that such special leave has been given. Where a defendant has been duly served with the writ of summons in any action and has appeared, the plaintiff's two days' notice of motion (or, with special leave, a shorter notice) may be served as a matter of

course; and where such a defendant has not appeared, and the eight days for appearance have expired, the plaintiff may, without any special leave, serve the two days' notice of motion (or, with special leave, a shorter notice) upon such defendant (liii. 7), and that either by merely filing same (xix. 6) or by personally serving same (Whitaker v. Thurston, W. N., 1876, p. 232). And by special leave (to be obtained exparte) the plaintiff may serve any notice of motion (either the two days' notice or any shorter notice) along with the writ of summons, or at any time after service thereof, and before the time limited for the appearance of such defendant (liii. 8).

§ 121. Motions.—Hearing of, and Evidence upon.— The court may direct notice of the motion to be served upon some person or persons not already served therewith, and may for that purpose adjourn the hearing of the motion (liii. 5); or the court may (but rarely will) dismiss the motion summarily (liii. 5); and successive adjournments of the hearing may be (and, on various accounts, usually are) made (liii. 6).

The evidence on motion is taken by affidavit; and one of the commonest occasions for the adjournment of a motion is the desire of some or one of the parties to consider whether he may not be able to produce affidavits in answer to those upon which the motion professes to be made. The necessity (which occasionally arises) of cross-examination on the affidavits may also cause an adjournment of the hearing of the motion, it not being, in general, convenient to have such cross-examination taken in court.

§ 122. Motions.—For Rule or Order to show Cause.— No rule or order to show cause in an action is to be granted except in cases in which that mode of procedure is expressly authorised by the rules (Judicature Acts, 1873-75, liii. 2). Consequently, a rule to show cause, upon a motion ex parte without notice, can be granted in the following cases only; that is to say:—

- (1.) Upon an application for a new trial (xxxix. 1a), by motion to the Court of Appeal, where the trial has been by a judge without a jury (xxxix. I, December 1876); or by motion to a divisional court, where the trial has been by a judge with a jury (xxxix. I, December 1876), and that even in the case of a non-suit (Etty v. Wilson, 3 Exch. Div. 359), and even in the case of an action sent out of Chancery for trial by jury (Hunt v. City of London Real Property Co., 3 Q. B. Div. 19), and an application to the wrong court will be dismissed (Yetts v. Foster, 3 C. P. Div. 437; Davies v. Felix, 4 Exch. Div. 32). Where the motion for a new trial is made to a divisional court (i.e., in respect of a trial had before a judge and a jury), upon the ground that the judge has not submitted or left the issues to the jury, and directed the jury as to the law and evidence applicable to the case (Act 1875, § 22), the motion is made upon an exception (i.e., objection) taken at the trial and entered upon or annexed to the record (if any), and where there is no record, then the ground of motion must be simply brought to the notice of the court (lviii. 13), by counsel upon the motion (with or without an affidavit of the objection or exception having been taken, or other means of showing same). And in either case, the motion being (in the first instance) ex parte, an order nisi can be made,—to which afterwards upon showing cause against a new trial the other side can object in the usual way. See also § 83, Judgment.—On Motion for New Trial.
- (2.) Upon an application in any proceeding "other than an action" (i. 3), if a motion for such a rule or order would have been the correct course previously to the Judicature Acts, e.g., in the matter of an arbitra-

- tion (Re Phillips v. Gill, L. R. I Q. B. Div. 78); also, e.g., for transferring an action into Chancery after a winding-up order has been made (In Re Landore Siemens Steel Co., 10 Ch. Div. 489); and so also, in the matter of solicitors to show cause why they should not be struck off the roll.
- (3.) Upon an application for a charging order on stock and shares (xlvi. 1) belonging beneficially to any judgment debtor (1 & 2 Vict., c. 110, § 15); and
- (4.) Upon an application for a garnishee order (xlv. 2).
- § 123. Motions.—For particular Interlocutory Orders. —An injunction (either mandatory or preventive) may be granted (or a receiver appointed), wherever just and convenient (Beddoes v. Beddoes, 9 Ch. Div. 89; Day v. Brownrigg, 10 Ch. Div. 294), by order at any stage in the action (Act 1873, § 25, sub-sect. 8), but it is not the practice of the court to grant a mandatory injunction before the trial; and a preventive injunction may be granted either before or at or after the hearing, wherever it is fit to grant same (Noakes v. Noakes, 4 P. Div. 60), and in such a case the fact of possession, or of claim of right, or any other (technical or substantial) ground of objection to the injunction carries no weight; but injunctions are, in these last-mentioned cases, invariably on terms (Shaw v. Earl of Jersey, 4 C. P. Div. 359), and are also usually until such and such a day or until further order (Bolton v. London School Board, 7 Ch. Div. 766), and in other cases injunctions may be granted either with or without terms (Act 1873, § 28, sub-sect. 8). The following particular interlocutory orders in the nature of injunctions (either mandatory or preventive) may also be made:--
- (1.) An order for the preservation or interim custody of the subject-matter of litigation, when a primâ facie

case of liability upon a defendant is made out, but such defendant claims to be relieved from the liability either wholly or partially (lii. 1).

- (2.) An order for the sale of goods, wares, or merchandise,—as being either,
 - (a.) Of a perishable nature; or
 - (b.) Likely to injure from keeping; or
- (c.) Desirable for other reasons to be sold (lii. z; Anglo-Italian Bank v. Davies, 9 Ch. Div. 275);
- (3.) An order for the preservation of property the subject-matter of the litigation generally (lii. 3; Cash v. Parker, 12 Ch. Div. 293);
- (4.) An order for the detention of such property (lii. 3);
- (5.) An order for the inspection of such property (lii. 3); and
- (6.) An order for the restitution of property (other than land) to the applicant, when the applicant's title to the property is not disputed, but the person in possession of it claims a right of retention on the ground of lien or otherwise (lii. 6).
- [N.B.—In this sixth case, money must be paid into court to answer the lien or other claim, before the order is made (lii. 6).]

The plaintiff may apply for the first of these particular interlocutory orders at any time after his right to such order appears on the pleadings (if any); and (if none) after his right to the order appears on any affidavits or otherwise (lii. 5).

As regards all other interlocutory orders, whether by way of injunction or otherwise, any party may apply for the order; but if a defendant, he must first have appeared to the writ (lii. 4); and unless he is a plaintiff, he can only apply on notice, and the plaintiff him-

self should also (excepting in cases of emergency) apply on notice and not ex parte (lii. 4).

- § 124. Motions.—Stay of Proceedings in lieu of Injunction.—In lieu of obtaining an injunction from the Chancery Division to stay an action in a Common Law Division, the latter division will itself, in a proper case (Crowle v. Russell, 4 C. P. Div. 186), direct a stay of proceedings in the action, upon the motion of any person (who would have had a right to the injunction), whether such person is or is not a party to the action in the Common Law Division (Act 1873, § 24, sub-sect. 5).*
- § 125. Motions.—To Dismiss Action for Want of Prosecution.—An order (subject, always, to the discretion of the court) may be made to dismiss a plaintiff's action (summarily before trial) in the following cases and upon the following grounds:—
- (I.) For default (by plaintiff) in delivering a statement of claim, being bound to deliver one (xxix. I; Whistler v. Hancock, 3 Q. B. Div. 83);
- (2.) For non-compliance by plaintiff with an order to answer interrogatories or to grant discovery or inspection of documents (xxxi. 20);
- (3.) For default (by plaintiff) for six weeks (or extended time, if any) after the close of the pleadings in giving notice of trial (xxxvi. 4a); and
- (4.) For default (by plaintiff) to give security for costs when ordered to do so (*La Grange* v. *M'Andrew*, 4 Q. B. Div. 210).
- § 126. Summonses—The Various Occasions for, in an Action.—All proceedings in an action, when the

^{*} The Court of Bankruptcy may still issue an injunction staying proceedings in any other court; and the Chancery Division may, in matters of Winding Up, do the like.

same are taken in Chambers or in the District Registry, are to be taken by summons (liv. 1; xxxv. 5).

The acts and rules in general leave it optional (in terms, at least) to take all proceedings of a summary kind incidental to the action in either of two ways, that is to say, either by motion or upon summons,the phrase "by the court or a judge," which occurs in the acts and in the rules passim, expressing that option. Nevertheless,—and in a Chancery action, at all events, —all such summary incidental proceedings, regarding which the procedure by motion or by summons is optional as aforesaid, should be taken upon summons and not by motion,—in the first instance, at least, seeing that in the Chancery Division it is the judge himself (either personally or by his agent, the Chief Clerk) that attends in Chambers, and a judge sitting in Chambers has all the authority of a judge sitting in court. But the parties must really exercise their own discretion in the matter,—e.g., an order to make an affidavit of documents would never be applied for on motion, but only on summons; and on the other hand, there are many matters incidental to an action in which not only is it more speedy, but it is simply proper and desirable to apply by motion, and it may even (from the gravity or intricacy of the matter) be occasionally necessary to apply by petition (2 Dan. Ch. Prac. 5th ed. p. 1434). Semble, a compromise arrived at in a pending action may be enforced therein by motion (Scully v. Lord Macdonald, 8 Ch. Div. 658); but it is sometimes necessary to bring an independent action for the purpose (Gilbert v. Endean, 9 Ch. Div. 259).

It is somewhat different, of course, in the Common Law Divisions, where the Master and the Judge are not (in substance) identical, and certain things are to be done by the Master, and certain others not (liv. 2 and 2a).

And as regards even Chancery actions, when these proceed in the District Registry,—it is quite true that the District Registrar is like a Common Law Master much more than like a Chief Clerk; and it is even expressly provided that the District Registrar (although otherwise able to do whatever a Judge at Chambers can do) shall not exercise any authority or jurisdiction which a Common Law Master is precluded from exercising (xxxv. 4 and liv. 2 and 2a).

In two instances, the acts or rules give no option between summons and motion, but prescribe a summons, viz.:—(I.) Applications for interlocutory order for an ordinary account where (under iii. 8) the writ is expressly indorsed with a claim for such account (xv. 2); and (2) Applications for final judgment where (under iii. 6) writ is specially indorsed in the case of a claim of debt or liquidated demand (xvi. 2). Also, a compromise arrived at in an action may be enforced on summons (Eden v. Naish, 7 Ch. Div. 781), but apparently might also be enforced on motion.

So also a defendant, after appearing to the writ of summons, if he is in a position to avail himself of interpleader, should take out a summons (before delivering any statement of defence) to compel the plaintiff and some third person to settle their respective claims between them, the defendant himself having no interest in the subject-matter of the litigation (i. 2). In this case, a motion to obtain an interpleader order would be a wholly mistaken course,—unless, perhaps, on very exceptional grounds.

On the other hand, in a great many instances, the acts or rules give no option between summons and motion, but prescribe a motion, and, of course, in these cases [as to which see §§ 118-125, Motions], there is no power of proceeding by summons. Neither can a

foreclosure decree be made on summons (Lloyd v. David Lloyd & Co., 26 W. R., 572).

Besides the matters regarding which the acts or the rules permit or prescribe a summons, there are many other matters (of a summary kind incidental to an action) that may be taken by summons,—being in fact the proceedings which may be taken at Chambers (independently of the acts and rules) as specified in § 112, Chambers—Proceedings in.

SECTIONS 127-129.

COSTS.—PROVISIONS REGARDING, GENERAL AND PARTICULAR.

§ 127. Costs.—General Provisions regarding.—In general the costs as between party and party follow the event of every action in the court, subject to a general discretion in the court (lv.), which will only be exercised on sufficient grounds (Harris v. Petherick, 4 Q. B. Div. 611), and subject also (quære) to the provisions of certain particular statutes regarding costs, and subject, lastly, to the special provisions of the Judicature Act, 1873, or to the agreement of the parties (Galatti v. Wakefield, 4 Exch. Div. 249), regarding costs. And this rule holds good, even where there has been an order for a new trial, and on the new trial the judgment is the reverse of the former judgment (Field v. G. N. Ry. Co., 3 Exch. Div. 261); also, where the plaintiff recovers the most trivial sum, as the balance after deducting defendant's counterclaim (Potter v. Chambers, 4 C. P. Div. 69; Chatfield v. Sedgewick, 4 C. P. Div. 383). The rule extends to all the costs "of and incident to" the action (In re Brandreth's Trade Mark, 9 Ch. Div. 618). A divisional court has original jurisdiction to deprive (for proper cause) a successful plaintiff of his costs of the

action, where no order regarding such costs is made at the trial (Myers v. Defries, 4 Exch. Div. 176; Siddons v. Lawrence, 4 Q. B. Div. 459).

Where costs are payable out of a particular estate or fund, the same may (according to circumstances) be (and that either of right or by special order) payable either as between solicitor and client or as between party and party; and as regards costs so payable, the right (where it exists) of any trustee, mortgagee, or other person to his costs is not affected by the Judicature Acts (lv.).

A successful appellant is entitled, in general, to the costs of the appeal and also to the costs in the court below,—as well his own costs there as also the costs which he may have paid to the other side under the adverse judgment. But where the court is divided in opinion, each party may be left to bear his own costs (Anderson v. Morice, I App. Ca. 713; Pryce v. Monmouth, &c., Co., 4 App. Ca. 197).

§ 127a. Costs.—Miscellaneous Provisions regarding. -When a client employs an uncertificated solicitor, neither the solicitor nor the client can recover his costs. even when successful (Re Fowler v. Monmouth, &c., Co., 4 Q. B. Div. 334). The costs of three counsel may or may not be allowed (Kirkwood v. Webster, o Ch. Div. 239); likewise the costs of shorthand writers' notes of evidence (Bigsby v. Dickinson, 4 Ch. Div. 24; Kirkwood v. Webster, 9 Ch. Div. 239); and apparently a special direction of the court is required for their allowance (Ashworth v. Outram, 9 Ch. Div. 483; In re Duchess of Westminster Silver Lead Ore Co., 10 Ch. Div. 307); and similarly on a reference (Wells v. Mitcham Gas-light Co., 4 Exch. Div. 1). The costs of an abandoned motion must be paid in full (Waddell v. Blockey, 10 Ch. Div. 416), unless under exceptional circumstances (Norton v. L. & N. W. Ry. Co., II Ch. Div. 118); but the costs of an application to the court for these costs will not be allowed in general, unless payment has been demanded and refused (Griffin v. Allen, 10 Ch. Div. 913); so likewise the costs on a motion to commit for contempt (Steele v. Hutchings, W. N., 1879, p. 18). Refreshers to counsel (Harrison v. Wearing, II Ch. Div. 206) and costs of experts (the experts not exceeding three) may be allowed (Stanger-Leathes v. Stanger-Leathes, W. N., 1879, p. 86). An action may be brought to trial for the sake of costs only (Storr v. Corporation of Maidstone, W. N., 1878, p. 219); and upon a change of solicitors, no provision is made by the order as to costs (Grant v. Holland, 3 C. P. Div. 180). The payment of costs may be stayed pending appeal (Grant v. Banque, &c., 3 C. P. Div. 202; Adair v. Young, 11 Ch. Div. 136), but usually is not (Merry v. Nickalls, L. R., 8 Ch. App. 205). Regarding costs when plaintiff succeeds in his action and defendant on his counter-claim, see Staples v. Young, 2 Exch. Div. 325; Blake v. Appleyard, 3 Exch. Div. 195; Potter v. Chambers, 4 Exch. Div. 69; Saner v. Bilton, 11 Ch. Div. 416. And as to whether solicitor's retainer is joint or several, see In re Allen, Davies v. Chatwood, II Ch. Div. 244. A plaintiff accepting money paid into court, in discharge of his action, may sign judgment for his costs (Greaves v. Fleming, 4 Q. B. Div. 226).

Security for costs (either in an action or on an appeal) is in the discretion of the court,—as to amount, as to time of giving, and in all other respects (Rule 7, Feb. 1876; Iviii. 15); and this security may extend to past as well as to future costs (Massey v. Allen, W. N., 1879, p. 131). The application for security should first be made to the party out of court (Ship "Constantia," W. N., 1879, p. 124). Appeals for costs alone do not lie (Act 1873, § 49), but appeals in respect of

costs, charges, and expenses, semble, do lie (In re Chennell, Jones v. Chennell, 8 Ch. Div. 492); also, an appeal lies regarding any order of the court requiring or not requiring security for costs (Northampton, &c., Co. v. Midland Wagon Co., 26 W. R., 485).

The usual grounds upon which security for costs has been ordered, are that the plaintiff's appeal is vexatious or such like, or that he has not paid the costs in the court below (*Usil* v. *Brearley*, 3 C. P. Div. 206; *Winterfield* v. *Bradnum*, 3 Q. B. Div. 324; *Hankin* v. *Turner*, 10 Ch. Div. 372; *Clarke* v. *Roche*, 25 W. R., 309), or that the plaintiff is merely formal (*Belmont* v. *Ayward*, 4 C. P. Div. 352), or is out of the jurisdiction (General Procedure), or is insolvent (*In re Ivory*, 10 Ch. Div. 372).

Security for costs, if desired, must be applied for without delay (In re Musical Compositions, &c., ex parte Hutchins v. Romer, W. N., 1879, p. 99), and must be given within a reasonable time (Polini v. Gray, 11 Ch. Div. 741).

- § 128. Costs.—Particular Provisions regarding.— There are various grounds for making a special order as to costs, and such grounds may be conveniently classified as under:—
- I. Independently of the Judicature Acts and rules, i.e., by certain rules of equity (and of law) not depending on statute, and not affected by any particular statute or by the Judicature Acts,—

When a party succeeds at the trial or hearing (or upon motion for judgment), but upon evidence which is not strictly consistent with his pleadings (Ex parte Cooper, In re Baum, 10 Ch. Div. 313), so that these want amendment at the trial, the court gives him no costs, and sometimes even requires him to pay the extra costs attributable to his faulty pleadings or

general faulty conduct of the case (Evans v. Davis, 10 Ch. Div. 747; Child v. Stenning, 11 Ch. Div. 82).

Also, in certain cases, e.g., actions for foreclosure or redemption, the costs of the action are added to the principal sum due on the security, as a matter of course, whether the mortgagee is plaintiff or is defendant.

Also, in administration actions, and in actions for the execution of the trusts of a deed, a trustee or executor's costs are paid as between solicitor and client, and out of the estate, and in preference (usually) to any other costs coming thereout; yet he may be deprived of his costs, and even ordered to pay costs (Hamer v. Giles, 11 Ch. Div. 942).

- II. Under the provisions of particular statutes not affected (or else affirmed) by the Judicature Acts.—Various special provisions regarding costs are contained in particular statutes, e.g., in the County Courts Act, 1867 (§§ 5, 7, 8, 10), and these provisions, semble, have been affirmed and continued by the Judicature Acts (Act 1873, § 67), notwithstanding the decisions in Garnett v. Bradley, 3 App. Ca. 944; Ex parte Mercers' Co., 10 Ch. Div. 481; and Parsons v. Tinling, 2 C. P. Div. 119. These last-mentioned provisions are briefly to the following effect:—
- (1.) As to actions in the High Court, which lay in the County Court, no costs when £20 or under recovered on contract, or £10 or under recovered in tort, unless certificate for costs annexed to record, or judge in chambers allows costs (\S 5);
- (2.) As to actions removed from the High Court into the County Court, costs prior to removal upon the High Court scale, and subsequent to the removal upon the County Court scale (\S 7),—applicable to actions on contract only, where amount claimed is or is reduced to £50

or under; but the like taxation of costs where action for malicious prosecution, &c., removed into the County Court (§ 10).

Nota Bene.—Detinue is (for this purpose) tort (Bryant v. Hubert, 3 C. P. Div. 389; and see Pontifex v. Midland Ry. Co., 3 Q. B. Div. 23; Fleming v. M. S. & L. Ry. Co., 4 Q. B. Div. 81).

III. Under the express provisions of the Judicature Acts and Rules alone,—

(1.) Needless prolixity or divergence from the prescribed forms in writs of summons (ii. 2), in pleadings (xix. 2), is visited with costs.

(2.) Mis-joinder or non-joinder of parties (xvi. 1), and improper joinder of actions (xvii. 9), are also visited

with costs.

(3.) An unnecessary statement of claim (xxi. 1c), or a foolishly hostile statement of defence (xxii. 4), or a frivolous demurrer (xxviii. 2), may be visited with costs.

(4.) Amendments (at unseasonable times or in unreasonable and inconsistent ways) are visited with costs (xxvii. 4, 6; xxviii. 7; Blackmore v. Edwards, W. N., 1879, p. 175).

- (5.) Demurrers, when overruled, oblige the demurring party to pay costs, unless the court should otherwise direct (xxviii. II); and demurrers, whether to the whole or to part of the action, when they are allowed, oblige the party whose pleading is demurred to, to pay costs, unless the court should otherwise direct (xxviii. 6, 8, 9).
- (6.) Want of prosecution, where action is dismissed for, obliges the plaintiff to pay costs (xxix. 1, 2).

(7.) Interrogatories of an unreasonable, vexatious, or unduly lengthy character are visited with costs (xxxi. 2).

(8.) Admissions of documents, unreasonable refusal to make, lays the party refusing open to the probability

of having the costs of the proofs thereof to pay, even though he should be successful (xxxii. 2).

(9.) Affidavits which unnecessarily set forth matters of hearsay, or argumentative matter, or copies of or extracts from documents, and, à fortiori, scandalous matter (Cracknall v. Janson, 11 Ch. Div. 1), may have to be paid for by the party filing same (xxxvii. 3).

(10.) Judgment of non-suit may (in a proper case) be set aside, but usually upon payment of costs (xli. 6).

(II.) Execution, leave to issue, where such leave necessary, will (if granted) be granted usually upon payment of the costs (xlii. 19).

(12.) Attachment of debts, the costs of, are entirely in the discretion of the court (xlv. 10); so also, attachment of person, costs of (lv. 1; Abud v. Riches, L. R. 2 Ch. Div. 528).

(13.) Appeals, cross notice of, when not given, is a ground slightly influencing the court in awarding costs of the appeal (lviii. 6; Ralph v. Carrick, 11 Ch. Div. 873).

(14.) And, nota bene, all the particular statutes confining the costs recoverable in actions of libel and slander to the amount of the damages recovered have been repealed by the Judicature Acts (Garnett v. Bradley, 3 App. Ca. 944); and that even in the case of inferior courts (King v. Hawkesworth, 4 Q. B. Div. 371); but the court may at the trial, or even subsequently thereto (Bowey v. Bell, 4 Q. B. Div. 95), entertain an application to deprive the plaintiff of his costs. And this repeal appears to be general (Ex parte Mercers' Company, 10 Ch. Div. 482).

§ 129. Costs.—Taxation of.—Various special rules '(and orders) regarding taxation of costs have been issued from time to time under the Judicature Acts, especially,—the rules of August 1875 (relating to, among other things, special allowancès, e.g., regarding scientific witnesses, Mackley v. Chillingworth, L. R. 2

C. P. Div. 273; Turnbull v. Janson, 3 C. P. Div. 264); the order as to court fees, October 1875; the order as to taking fees by stamps, October 1875; the order as to fees and percentages, April 1876; the order as to fees of official referees, April 1877; and the order as to fees in Manchester and Liverpool District Registries, October 1877. Such taxation may be on either the higher or the lower scale (In re Sanderson, 7 Ch. Div. 176; Rogers v. Jones, 7 Ch. Div. 345); and may be even after payment, but only under special circumstances (In re Heritage, 3 Q. B. Div. 726; Watson v. Rodwell, 11 Ch. Div. 150); see also § 127a, supra.

SECTIONS 130-135.

APPEALS.—THE PROCEEDINGS UPON, AS WELL FORMAL AS SUMMARY.

§ 130. Appeals.—Varieties of.—Every judgment (whether final or interlocutory), and also every order, is appealable to the Court of Appeal (Act 1873, § 19), unless where the Judicature Acts or any other Acts exclude the right of appeal or declare the judgment or order to be final or without appeal (Appellate Jurisdiction Act, 1876, \$ 20); and every judgment (whether final or interlocutory), and also every order of the Court of Appeal, is appealable to the House of Lords (Appellate Jurisdiction Act, 1876, § 3), but as regards Scotland and Ireland, only where error or appeal lay before the Appellate Jurisdiction Act, 1876. And there are two exceptions to appealable judgments or orders, viz.—(1.) Orders made by consent, and (2.) Orders as to costs merely, where the costs are matter of discretion (Act 1873, § 49)—these two exceptions are, however, appealable with the leave of the ordering judge (Act 1873, § 49).—The judgment of a Divisional Court of the High Court, consisting of not fewer than five judges, and acting as a court for Crown Cases

Reserved (II & I2 Vict., c. 78), is not further appealable (Act 1873, § 47). Nor is any appeal allowed in a criminal cause or matter [not being to the last-mentioned Divisional Court upon a point reserved], excepting for some error of law apparent upon the record (Act 1873, § 47). Rehearings are abolished (In rest. Nazaire Land Co., 12 Ch. Div. 88).

Appeals from Inferior Courts (Including County Courts) are to a Divisional Court of the High Court (Act 1873, § 45), and not further unless by leave of the Appeal Divisional Court (Act 1873, § 45).

Orders (not being discretionary) made by the Judge in Chambers, having been first moved upon notice, to be set aside or discharged by the Judge in Court (in the Chancery Division) or by a Divisional Court (in the Common Law Divisions), become thereafter appealable to the Court of Appeal (Act 1873, § 50); and such orders may, by leave of the Judge or of the Court of Appeal, be appealed direct from Chambers to the Court of Appeal (Act 1873, § 50). In such cases, either the judge should grant leave, or should certify that he does not want any further argument, or the Court of Appeal should be applied to, in order to set down the appeal without the judge's certificate (Thomas v. Elsom, L. R. 6 Ch. Div. 346).

A judgment of the Lord Mayor's Court is not appealable direct to the Court of Appeal (Le Blanch v. Reuter's Telegraph Co., L. R. I Exch. Div. 408, being bad law), but is appealable in the first instance to the Divisional Court (Appleford v. Judkins, 3 C. P. Div. 489).

§ 131. Appeal to Divisional Court of High Court.— These appeals, when from County Courts, are,—

Either (1.) Upon a special case,—settled and signed in the County Court by the parties or by the County

Court Judge, and sealed with the seal of the County Court (see 13 & 14 Vict., c. 61, as to such special cases in common law matters; and 28 & 29 Vict., c. 99, as to such special cases in equity matters).

- [N.B.—No evidence is rightly adduceable,—the appeal being grounded upon a mere point of law or upon some question of the rejection or mis-reception of evidence.]
- [N.B.—Four days before the day appointed for argument of the special case, lodge two copies of the case at the Crown Office of the Queen's Bench Division, and they will be forwarded to the Divisional Court by the day (Notice, Feb. 1877.]
 - Or (2.) By motion (38 & 39 Vict., c. 50, § 6).
- [N.B.—No such motion can be made, unless a copy of County Court judge's notes signed by the judge is handed to the proper officer in court (Notice, Feb. 1877); and the points intended to be taken on the appeal must have been taken and defined before the County Court judge, so as to be embodied in his notes.]
- [N.B.—The time for appealing by motion under 38 & 39 Vict., c. 50, § 6, is eight days, not extendible (Tenant v. Rawlings, 4 C. P. Div. 134); and for appealing by special case under 13 & 14 Vict., c. 61, and 28 & 29 Vict., c. 99, is thirty days.]

(See also § 3. Divisional Court.—Matters for.)

- § 132. Appeal to the Court of Appeal.—(1.) Manner of Appealing.—By simple notice of motion (lviii. 2), stating whether the appeal is from the whole or from some (and what?) part only of the judgment or order.
- (2.) Notice of Appeal.—Service of.—The notice is to be served on all parties directly affected by the appeal, but not (at least, unless so ordered by the Court of

Appeal) upon persons not so affected thereby (lviii. 3); the Court of Appeal may, in addition, direct service of the notice upon third persons not already parties (lviii. 3).

- (3.) Cross Appeal.—Notice.—It is not necessary to give notice of motion by way of cross appeal, but if the respondent intend to ask upon the hearing of the appeal any variation in the decision appealed against, then he should notify that intention to the parties who will be affected by such variation if made (lviii. 6); but even such notification is not necessary, although (having regard to costs) it may occasionally (The Lauretta, 4 P. Div. 25) be expedient (lviii. 6).
- (4.) Notice of Appeal.—Amendment of.—By leave of the Court of Appeal, and at any time (lviii. 3).
- (5.) Notice of Appeal.—Length of.—From judgments (whether final or interlocutory), it is a fourteen days' notice, and from interlocutory orders, it is a four days' notice (lviii. 4). And as regards notice in lieu of notice by way of cross appeal from judgment (being final), it is an eight days' notice, and from interlocutory orders, it is a two days' notice (lviii. 7).
- (6.) Appeal.—Time for.—From the refusal of an ex parte application,—four days from the refusal (lviii. 10).

From the refusal of an interlocutory application on notice,—twenty-one days from date of refusal (lviii. 15; Dickson v. Harrison, 11 Ch. Div. 243; and see Berdan v. Birmingham Small Arms, 7 Ch. Div. 24; International, &c., Co. v. Moscow, &c., Co., 7 Ch. Div. 241; and for an extension of the time on the ground of mistake, compare MacAndrew v. Barker, 7 Ch. Div. 701, with Rhodes v. Jenkins, 7 Ch. Div. 711; and Craig v. Phillips, 7 Ch. Div. 249. But see In re Mitchell's Trusts, 9 Ch. Div. 5).

From the refusal of a judgment (final or interlocutory), one year from date of refusal (lviii. 15).

[This would include dismissal of action.]

From an interlocutory order,—twenty-one days from the signing and entering or otherwise perfecting of the order (lviii. 15).

Nota Bene.—This rule applies to a judge's finding without a jury of what is in fact a verdict, as distinct from the judgment given upon it (Krehl v. Burrell, 10 Ch. Div. 420; Lowe v. Lowe, 10 Ch. Div. 432); also, to an order to sign judgment (Standard Discount Co. v. Otard de la Grange, 3 C. P. Div. 67).

From a judgment (final or interlocutory),—one year from the signing and entering or otherwise perfecting of the judgment (lviii. 15).

[N.B.—Appeals from any order or decision,—

(a.) In winding up of companies,

(b.) In bankruptcy of individuals (Ex parte Garrard, 5 Ch. Div. 61; Ex parte Cochrane, 9 Ch. Div. 698; Ex parte Wigg, W. N., 1879, p. 101), and

(c.) In proceedings other than actions,—are limited to twenty-one days.

And the twenty-one days are to be reckoned,—

- (a.) From the refusal of the order or decision, if refused; and
- (b.) From the signing and entering or otherwise perfecting of the order or decision, if made (lviii. 9).
- (7.) Setting down Appeal.—The appeal must be set down within the time named in the Notice of Appeal (Re National Funds Assurance Co., L. R. 4 Ch. Div.

305; Donovan v. Brown, 4 Exch. Div. 148; distinguish Goodbarne v. Fothergill, 10 Ch. Div. 613). An appeal is set down,—

- (a.) If from refusal of judgment or order, by leaving notice of appeal simply; and
- (b.) If from judgment or order, by leaving same or office copy thereof, and also notice of appeal, with the Registrar (lviii. 8).
- (8.) The Judgment.—Upon the hearing of an appeal, the court has power (after amending and receiving further evidence, if either should be necessary) to give any judgment and to make any order which ought to have been made, and also to make such further or other order as the case may require (lviii. 5); and the court may in so doing either go beyond or stay within the notice of appeal, and may even give such judgment or make such order in favour of all or any of the respondents, although they may not have given any cross appeal notice (lviii. 5). And the court is not to be prevented from so doing by any interlocutory order or rule from which there has been no appeal (lviii. 14). Further, if upon the hearing of an appeal from a judgment pronounced by a judge in court on the verdict or finding of a jury, or of a judge without a jury, it appears to the Court of Appeal that a new trial ought to be had, the court may direct a new trial (lviii. 5a, March 1879).
- (9.) The Costs of Appeal.—The court may either as to the whole or as to any part of these costs make such order as is just (lviii. 5).
- (10.) The Execution.—This is left to the High Court and to the division and judge thereof from whom the appeal was brought. Where the judgment or order of the Court of Appeal is given or made by virtue of any original jurisdiction of that court, and not by virtue of its appellate jurisdiction, then, semble,

the Court of Appeal (being a member of the Supreme Court) might grant execution, if the High Court should (in any such case) be unable to do so. But, nota bene, that the Court of Appeal has no original jurisdiction otherwise than as incidental to its appellate jurisdiction. Execution (where necessary) for the costs of the appeal likewise issues from the High Court.

- § 133. Appeal to House of Lords.—(1.) What Judgments and Orders Appealable.—Any order or judgment of the Court of Appeal is appealable to the House of Lords, but (as regards Scotland and Ireland) only where error or appeal would lie to the House before the 1st November 1876 (Appellate Jurisdiction Act, 1876, §§ 3, 12). The fiat or consent of the Attorney-General remains necessary, where it was necessary heretofore (Act 1876, § 10).
- (2.) Manner of Appealing.—By petition (and not, as in the Court of Appeal, by motion), praying for a reviewal of the matter of the order or judgment appealed against (Act 1876, § 4); and no other manner of appealing to the House is permitted (Act 1876, § 11). The petition is to be signed by the appellant's two counsel (S. O., ii.), and is to be also certified by them to be a proper case for appeal (S. O., ii.).
- (3.) Time for Appealing.—One year from the date of the order or judgment appealed from (S. O., i.); or one year after coming of age, or after discoverture, or after becoming again compos mentis, or after getting out of prison, or (so only five years in all be not exceeded) one year after returning from abroad (S. O., i.).
- (4.) The Securities for Costs.—One recognisance by self or substitute in the sum of £500, and either one joint and several bond of two sufficient sureties in the sum of £200, or else the deposit of £200 in the Court of Parliament (S. O., iv.).
- (5.) The "Form of Appeal."—Consists of the petition of appeal with schedule thereto, accompanied with

the certificate of counsel and a certificate that a copy of the appeal, together with a notice that the appeal was going to be presented on the day specified in the notice, has been served on the respondents.

- (6.) The Appeal.—Presentation of.—The "form of appeal" printed on parchment is to be lodged in the Parliament office for presentation, and an order will be thereafter made ordering the respondents to lodge their cases in answer. The order, with an indorsement thereon of due service thereof, is to be afterwards returned into the Parliament office within six weeks after the date of the presentation of the appeal (S. O., ii., v.).
- (7.) The Appearance of the Respondents.—Any respondents intending to support the judgment or order appealed from, are to enter their appearances in the Appearance Book kept in the Parliament office (S. O., ii.).
- (8.) Lodging Printed Cases and Appendices.—Six weeks (in English appeals) and eight weeks (in Scotch and Irish appeals) from the presentation of the appeal are allowed for the appellants and respondents respectively lodging these (S. O., ii.); the parties may agree upon a joint case with reasons pro and contra: the appendix is a print of all such parts of the evidence already used (including documents) as the appellant means to rely upon; and the respondent may add thereto additional documents also printed. The appellant delivers ten copies of appendix to the respondents, and lodges forty copies of his case and appendices in the Parliament office, and the respondent subsequently lodges ten more (S. O., ii.). If the respective periods of six weeks and eight weeks expire during the recess, these periods are extended to the third sitting day of the next ensuing meeting (S. O., vii.). And the periods may also otherwise be extended on petition.
- (9.) Setting down the Case.—So soon as the printed cases (or case) and appendices have been lodged, either the appellants or the respondents may set the appeal

down for hearing,—the appellant doing so at latest on the first sitting day after the expiration of the six weeks aforesaid (in English appeals), and of the eight weeks aforesaid (in Scotch and Irish appeals); and if he fail to do so, either the respondent may set down the appeal on such first sitting day at latest, or the appeal will be dismissed (S. O., ii. v.). As to all (if any) of the respondents who have not entered an appearance, the appeal is set down ex parte upon proof of the service of the order aforesaid to appear.

- (10.) Cross-Appeals.—May be presented, and set down in like manner as, but within the times limited for, appeals (S. O., vi.).
- (II.) Supplemental Cases.—Are to be lodged upon the death of any party, if the appeal is revived against the representatives of such party (S. O., viii.); and so likewise, where any party is added (S. O., viii.).
- (12.) Judgment.—Upon hearing the Appeal Petition, the House is "to determine what of right and according to the law and custom of this realm ought to be done in the subject-matter of such appeal" (Act 1876, § 4).
- (13.) Costs.—Taxation and Recovery of.—Where costs are given, the House may itself fix the amount, or its taxing officer will tax same, or the Clerk of the Parliaments will appoint some person to tax same, and will give a certificate of the taxed costs; and upon the order giving costs, with or without such certificate (as the case may require), the taxed costs are recoverable (S. O., x.).
- (14.) Execution.—Where an appeal is allowed, the case is remitted to the Court below (i.e., to the High Court) with such (if any) direction as may be necessary, and the judgment or order of the House would accordingly (at least, in the general case) be executed in the High Court (British Dynamite Co. v. Krebs, 11 Ch. Div. 448). Execution (when necessary) for the costs of the appeal is by order of the House estreating the recognisance (Callaghan v. Callaghan, 8 Cl. & Fin. 709).

(See Denison and Scott's House of Lord's Appeal Practice.)

- § 134. The Evidence.—On Appeals.—Firstly, when appeal is to the Court of Appeal,—
 - (a.) Evidence already given in the High Court is brought before the Court of Appeal, in general, as follows:—
 - (aa.) Affidavit evidence,—by printed copies of affidavits already printed; and by office copies of affidavits not already printed;
 - (bb.) Evidence taken vivâ voce,— by copy of judge's notes, or by such other means (usually shorthand writer's notes) as the Court thinks expedient.
- N.B.—Shorthand writer's notes are usually (but not necessarily) printed; and the cost of so taking and also of so printing them may, in a proper case, be allowed (lviii. 12; Bigsby v. Dickinson, L. R. 4 Ch. Div. 24); but a special direction is necessary (Ashworth v. Outram, 9 Ch. Div. 483).
 - (b.) Further evidence, i.e., evidence additional to that already given in the High Court, may be brought before the Court of Appeal, in general, as follows:—
 - (aa.) Upon interlocutory orders appealed from,—
 further evidence (of facts arisen either
 before or since the order appealed from)
 by affidavit or by vivâ voce examination
 in the Court of Appeal, or by deposition
 taken before an examiner or commissioner
 (lviii. 5);
 - (bb.) Upon judgments (final or interlocutory) appealed from, further evidence, of facts arisen before the decision appealed

from, with leave; and of facts arisen since the decision appealed from, without leave, —by affidavit or by vivâ voce examination in the Court of Appeal or by deposition taken before an examiner or commissioner (lviii. 5).

Secondly, when appeal is to the House of Lords, the evidence is contained in the printed appendices scheduled to the Petition of Appeal.

§ 135. Appeals.—Stay of Proceedings Pending.— An appeal from a master's decision operates no stay of proceedings unless and so far as the master (or a judge) otherwise orders (liv. 5). An appeal from a District Registrar's decision operates no stay of proceedings unless and so far as the District Registrar (or a judge) otherwise orders (xxxv. 8). An appeal to the Court of Appeal operates no stay of execution or of proceedings under the decision appealed from (lviii. 16), all intermediate acts and proceedings holding good, unless otherwise ordered by the Court of Appeal (Adair v. Young, 11 Ch. Div. 136), or by the Court appealed from, or any judge thereof (Iviii. 16); the application to stay is to be first made in the court appealed from (lviii, 17). But an order to show cause (when a motion ex parte for a new trial) operates a stay of proceedings in the action,—unless (and excepting so far as) the court upon granting the rule shall otherwise order (xxxix, 5).

SECTIONS 136, 137.

TIME.—PROVISIONS REGARDING, GENERAL AND PARTICULAR.

§ 136. Time.—General Provisions Regarding.— Month means calendar month, unless expressed to be

lunar month (lvii. 2). Sunday, Christmas Day, and Good Friday are not reckoned, when the time limited for doing any act or taking any proceeding is less than six days (lvii. 2); but Sundays, Christmas Day, and Good Friday are reckoned, when the time limited is six days or more,—excepting to this extent, viz., if the time limited expires with a Sunday, then the act or proceeding may be done or taken on the Monday (lvii. 3), or if the time limited expires with a day on which the offices of the court are closed,* then the act or proceeding may be done or taken on the day that the offices are next open (lvii. 3). And in particular, as regards the Long Vacation, being from 10th August to 24th October (both days inclusive), (lxi. 2, 3), it is not reckoned (unless the court specially orders to the contrary) in counting the time within which pleadings are to be filed, amended, or delivered (lvii. 5); and, in fact, no pleading is to be (unless the court specially orders it to be) either amended or delivered during the Long Vacation (lvii. 4; Chapman v. Real Property Trust, Limited, 7 Ch. Div. 732). The court or a judge has a general power of enlarging or abridging the time appointed by the rules for the doing any act or the taking any proceeding (lvii. 6), and usually upon terms.

The division of the legal year into terms is abolished (Act 1873, § 26); but where the old terms were used as a measure for determining the time at or within which any act was to be done, they continue to be so used, unless and until they are superseded and so far as they are not superseded by other provisions in the like behalf (Act 1873, § 26; College of Christ v. Martin, 3 Q. B. Div. 16) [see also § 97, supra].

^{*} The offices of the court are closed on Sundays, Good Friday, Easter Monday, Easter Tuesday, Whit Monday, Christmas Day, the working day next following Christmas Day, and all days specially appointed by royal proclamation as days of general fasting, humiliation, or thanksgiving (lxi. 4).

§ 137. Time.—Particular Provisions Regarding.

I. The regular or formal and usual stages.

Writ of Summons.—Good for one year only, unless renewed, and if renewed then for six months at a time (viii. I). Service of writ, at any time while current, is good.

Appearance of Defendant to Writ.—Normal period eight days after service of writ, or other the time specified in the writ; but any time before judgment will do.

Plaintiff's Statement of Claim.—Delivery of, to be within six weeks after defendant's appearance to writ (xxi. 1).

Defendant's Statement of Defence (with or without counter-claim).—Delivery of, to be within eight days after delivery of plaintiff's statement of claim (xxii. I); and where no statement of claim delivered by plaintiff because defendant has stated that he does not require one, then within eight days after normal period for defendant's appearance to writ (xxii. 2).

N.B.—If defence is by Demurrer, the time is the same (xxviii. 3).

Plaintiff's Reply.—Delivery of, to be within three weeks after delivery of defendant's statement of defence (xxiv. I).

N.B.—If reply is by Demurrer, the time is the same (xxviii. 3).

Defendant's (or Plaintiff's) Pleading subsequent to Reply.—Delivery of to be within four days (normal period) after delivery of last preceding pleading (xxiv. 3).

N.B.—If any pleading subsequent to reply is by Demurrer, the time is the same (xxviii. 3).

Demurrer, Entry for Argument.—Within ten days after delivery (xxviii. 6), otherwise demurrer is good.

Evidence by Affidavit.—(Where evidence so taken by consent.) Delivery of plaintiff's affidavits, within fourteen days after consent (xxxviii. 1); delivery of defendant's affidavits, within fourteen days after delivery of plaintiff's (xxxviii. 2); delivery of plaintiff's affidavits in reply, within seven days after delivery of defendant's (xxxviii. 3).

N.B.—These times may be (and in general should be) specially agreed upon, in the written consent to take the evidence by affidavit, or the court may be asked to extend same (xxxviii. 1, 2).

N.B.—If the evidence is to be taken vivâ voce at the hearing or trial, then each party prepares his own proofs in time for the hearing or trial simply.

Cross-Examination on Affidavits.—Notice for deli-On trial of very of, to be within fourteen days after delivery of hearing. plaintiff's affidavits in reply (xxxviii. 4); but the Court may specially appoint any other time (xxxviii. 4).

N.B.—If the evidence in chief is taken vivâ voce at the trial, then the cross-examination (if any) follows immediately upon the examination in chief, and then the re-examination (if any) follows upon such cross-examination immediately.

Notice of Trial.—Delivery of, by plaintiff with his reply (being a simple joinder of issue), or within six weeks after delivery of such a reply (xxxvi. 4); and after the expiration of such six weeks, either plaintiff or defendant may give the notice at any time, whichever of them is first in so doing (xxxvi. 4).

Motion for Judgment.—Action to be set down on, at any time within one year from the time at which the right to set down arose (xl. 9), but usually within ten days from such time (xl. 3, 7); and the ten days' limit is the extreme limit when leave to move reserved at trial (xl. 2).

Judgment, Entry of.—As soon as the successful party is ready, and (where judgment is conditional) upon the condition being fulfilled (xli. 4, 5). The judgment when pronounced by or in court bears date the day it is so pronounced (xli. 2).

New Trial, Motion for.—Ex parte applications for order or rule nisi to be made,—

- (a.) Where trial has been in London or Middlesex within *four* days after trial, or on first day of next subsequent sitting of Divisional Court to hear motions (xxxix. 1a, March 1879).
- (b.) Where trial has been elsewhere than in London or Middlesex, within first four days of next subsequent sittings, or within seven days after the last day of sitting on the circuits during which the action shall have been tried, if such day occurs during or within a week immediately before a vacation (xxxix. Ia, March 1879).
- N.B.—Rule or order to show cause obtained on this motion is to be served within four days from its date (xxxix. 2); and cause is to be shown within eight days after date of rule or order (xxxix. 1a).
 - Appeal.—From master at Chambers to judge at Chambers, four days (Gibbons v. L. F. Association, 4 C. P. Div. 263).
 - Appeal.—From judge at Chambers to court, twentyone days in Chancery (lviii. 15, as applied in

Dickson v. Harrison, 9 Ch. Div. 243); and eight days in Common Law Divisions (liv. 6, March 1879).

Appeal, Notice of Motion for.—Delivery of at any To Court of time within one year whether judgment is final or is interlocutory—to be computed (where judgment is refused) from date of refusal, and (where judgment is given for plaintiff or applicant) from the date the judgment is drawn up and entered (lviii. 15). The appeal-notice must be a fourteen days' notice (lviii. 4), and notice (if any) of cross-appeal an eight days' notice (lviii. 7).

[N.B.—Interlocutory orders are to be appealed within twenty-one days; see *infra*, the 2d branch of this section,—"The Incidental or Summary and Occasional Stages."]

Appeal, Petition of .-- Must be lodged in the Parlia- To House of ment office for presentation to the House of Lords Lords. within one year from the date of the judgment or order appealed from (App. Jur. Act, 1876, S. O., i.); and the appeal case (or cases), together with the . appendices thereto, must be lodged in the same office within six weeks (in the Case of English appeals) and eight weeks (in the case of Scotch and Irish appeals), from date of presentation of appeal (S. O., v.). But as regards appeals to the House of Lords, the year for appealing is reckoned (in cases of disability) from the time of attaining full age (in the case of infants), from the time of becoming discovert (in the case of married women), from the time of becoming compos mentis (in the case of non compos mentis), and from getting out from prison (in the case of persons in prison), and from returning from abroad (in the case of persons abroad), excepting that in the case of persons abroad, no further time than five years in all is to be allowed for appealing (S. O., i.).

II. The incidental or summary and occasional stages.

Writ of summons.

- (a.) Concurrent Writ.—May issue within twelve months from issue of original writ (vi. 1).
- (b.) Renewed Writ.—Writ may be renewed for six months successively, each renewal to be made while original writ (either itself, or as previously renewed) is current (viii. I).
- (c.) Amendment of.—With leave, at any time, and in any respect or respects (iii. 2; xxvii. II).
- (d.) Amended Writ, Issue and Service of.—Like original writ (xvi. 15).

Appearance of Defendant to Amended Writ.—Where party added as Defendant.—Normal period eight days after service of amended writ, or other the time specified in the amended writ (xvi. 13); but any time before judgment will do.

Plaintiff's Statement of Claim.

- (a.) Extension of Time to Deliver.—The normal period of six weeks for delivery of statement of claim may be extended (xxi. 1).
- (b.) Amendment of.—The statement may be amended once without leave at any time within three weeks after delivery of defendant's statement of defence, plaintiff not having meanwhile replied thereto (xxvii. 2), and (when no statement of defence has been delivered, then) within four weeks after appearance of last appearing defendant (xxvii. 2); and at any later time with leave (xxvii. 7).
- N.B.—Amendments under special leave to amend must be made within the time specified in the order giving leave, or else within fourteen days from date of order (xxvii. 7).
- (c.) Delivery of Amended Statement of Claim.— Where amendment made, the amended statement of

claim must be delivered to persons already parties within the time for amending same (xxvii. 10) and to persons made for the first time parties by the amendment within four days after the appearance of such parties (xvi. 16) to the amended writ of summons as served upon them (xvi. 16).

- (d.) Re-amendment of.—Re-amendments are clearly permitted with leave, and no time limited for making them, otherwise than by the order giving leave (xxvii. 5, 6).
- (e.) Amendments, Disallowance of.—Applications to disallow amendments made without leave must be made within eight days after delivery of the amended statement of claim (xxvii. 4).

Defendant's Statement of Defence with or without Counter-claim.

- (a.) Extension of Time to Deliver.—The normal period of eight days for delivery of statement of defence may be extended (xxii. 1).
- (b.) Amendment of.
 - (I.) If simple defence (without counter-claim), amend same with leave at any time, and without leave not at all (xxvii. 5, 6);
 - (2.) If defence with counter-claim, amend counter-claim once without leave at any time within four days after delivery of plaintiff's reply, defendant not having meanwhile pleaded to such reply (xxvii. 3), and (where no reply has been delivered, then) within twenty-eight days from delivery of defence (xxvii. 3); and at any later time with leave (xxvii. 1).
 - N.B.—Amendments under special leave to amend must be made within the time specified in the order giving leave, or else within fourteen days from date of order (xxvii. 7).

- (c.) Delivery of Amended Statement of Defence.—Where amendment made, the amended statement of defence must be delivered to persons already parties within the time for amending same (xxvii. 10); and to persons who by the amendment are made for the first time parties within, semble, the like time.
- (d.) Re-Amendment of.—Re-amendments are clearly permitted with leave, and no time limited for making them, otherwise than by the order giving leave (xxvii. 5, 6).
- (e.) Amendments, Disallowance of.—Applications to disallow amendments made without leave must be made within eight days after delivery of the amended statement of defence and counter-claim (xxvii. 4).

Plaintiff's Reply.

- (a.) Extension of Time to Deliver.—The normal period of three weeks for delivery of reply may be extended (xxii. 1).
- (b.) Amendment of.—Amend same with leave at any time, and without leave not at all (xxvii. 5, 6).
- N.B.—Amendments under special leave to amend must be made within the time specified in the order giving leave, or else within fourteen days from date of order (xxvii. 7).
- (c.) Delivery of Amended Reply.—Where amendment made, the amended reply must be delivered within the time for amending same (xxvii. 10).
- (d.) Re-Amendment of.—Re-amendments are clearly permitted with leave, and no time limited for making them, otherwise than by the order giving leave (xxvii. 5, 6).

Third Party's Reply (being his Defence) to Counter-

claim.—Must be delivered within eight days (extendible) afterthird party has been served with counter-claim (xxii. 8); but, no doubt, this reply will be allowed the same indulgences by way of extension of time to deliver, and by way of amendment and re-amendment of, as the defendant's statement of defence is allowed to have, as explained supra.

Defendant's Further Defence.—Of matter arisensince delivery of statement of defence, or of amended statement of defence,—by leave only, and to be delivered within eight days after the matter arisen (xx. 2).

N.B.—Matter arisen subsequent to writ issued, may, without leave, be included in statement of defence (xx. 2).

N.B.—In either case, plaintiff may deliver a confession of the Further Defence or Defence, and sign judgment for his costs up to the time of the delivery of such Further Defence or Defence (xx. 3).

Plaintiff's Further Reply.—Of matter arisen since delivery of reply,—by leave only, and to be delivered within eight days after matter arisen (xx. 2).

N.B.—Matter arisen subsequent to delivery of statement of defence, may, without leave, be included in reply (xx. 2).

Third Party's Further Reply (being his Further Defence to Counter-claim), semble, like Defendant's Further Defence, supra.

Pleadings Subsequent to Reply.—And which (being other than a simple joinder of issue) are by leave only (xxiv. 2), are to be delivered within four days after the delivery of the previous pleading (xxiv. 3).

- (a.) Extension of Time to Deliver.—But the normal period of four days may be extended (xxiv. 3).
- (b.) Amendment of.—Amend same with leave at any time, and without leave not at all (xxvii. 6).
- N.B.—Amendments made under special leave to amend must be made within the time specified in the order giving leave, or else within fourteen days from date of order (xxvii. 7).
- (c.) Delivery of.—Where amendment made, the amended pleading must be delivered within the time for amending same (xxvii. 10).
- Fig. (d.) Re-amendment of.—Re-amendments are clearly permitted with leave, and no time limited for making them, otherwise than by the order giving leave (xxvii. 6).

Demurrer.—Entry for Aryument.—Ut supra.
Evidence by Affidavit.—Ut supra.
Cross-examination on Affidavits.—Ut supra.
Notice of Trial.—Ut supra.
Motion for Judgment.—Ut supra.
New Trial.—Motion for.—Ut supra.
Appeal.—Notice of Motion for.—Ut supra.
Appeal.—Petition of.—Ut supra.

Summonses.—Usually two clear days' service of,—but shorter by leave.

Notices of Motion for Interlocutory Order.—Usually two clear days' service of,—but shorter by leave (liii. 4).

Appeals from Interlocutory Orders.—The notice of appeal must be a four days' notice (lviii. 4), and must be given within twenty-one days from the order appealed from,—reckoning (in case of refusal of order)

from date of refusal, or (in case of grant of order) from entry thereof (lviii. 15). Any cross appeal notice is a two days' notice (lviii. 7).

Nota Bene.—That an order overruling (or allowing) a demurrer, although it is not an interlocutory order, is to be appealed as if it were an interlocutory order (Trowell v. Shenton, 8 Ch. Div. 318).

Appeals from Refusal of Interlocutory Order ex parte.

—Must be brought within four days (lviii. 10).

Appeal from District Registrar.—Must be brought within four days (liv. 4).

Appeal from Chambers to Judge.—None in Chancery, but an immediate reference to judge in Chambers, and in Common Law, take out summons and make same returnable before the judge within four days from Master's decision (liv. 4; Bell v. North Stuffordshire Railway Co., 4 Q. B. Div. 205).

Appeal from Judge at Chambers to Court.—Twentyone days (lviii. 15; as applied in Dickson v. Harrison, 9 Ch. Div. 243), in Chancery actions; and in Common Law Divisions, eight days (liv. 6, March 1879).

§ 138. TABULAR STATEMENT (IN ROUGH)

(Designed principally to show the Varying Course which the Action

- 1. THE WRIT.—PREPARATION, ISSUE, AND SERVICE OF.
- 2. THE APPEARANCE. -ENTRY OF.
- 3. Plaintiff's Statement of Claim.—Preparation and Delivery of.
- 4. DEFENDANT'S STATEMENT OF DEFENCE.—PREPARATION AND DELIVERY OF. (in any of the following forms) :-
- (a.) DEMURRER-In which case, the steps (subsequent to delivery of) are as follows :-
- 5. Entry of Demurrer for Argument, and notice of such entry to other side.
- 6. Argument of Demurrer.
- 9. Judgment on Demurrer,-when, if overruled, subsequent defence is by defence properly so called (c, infra); but if allowed, and no liberty to amend, then-
- 8. Satisfaction of costs, for recovery of which-
- 9. Entry of Judgment.
- 10. Execution.

5. Demurrer by Plaintiff,-in which case, the steps (subsequent to delivery of) are as follows :-

Either (aa.)

- 6. Entry.
- 7. Argument.
- 8. Judgment.
- Satisfaction costs.
- 10. Entry of Judgment for costs.
- 11. Execution.

[Exactly as in De-

- murrer(a, supra).]

- (b.) PLEA-In which case, the steps (subsequent to delivery of) are as follows :-
 - 5. Reply of Plaintiff, - in which case, the steps (subsequent delivery of) are as follows :-

Or (bb.)

- 6. Notice of Trial of Plea.
- Entry of Action (Plea) for Trial.
- 8. Trial.
- Verdict,—when, if verdict is

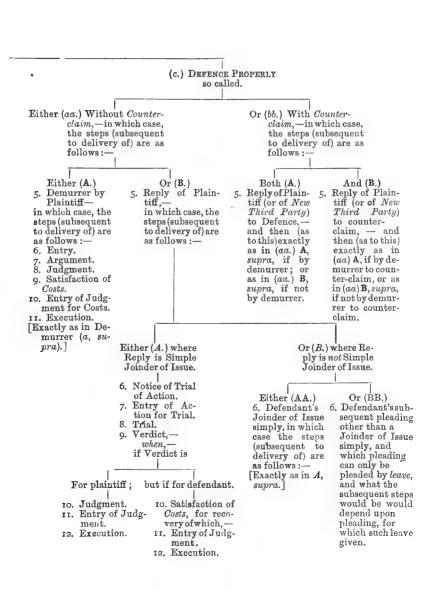
For plaintiff;

10. Judgment.

- 11. Entry of Judg-
- ment.
- 12. Execution.
- but if for defendant
- 10. Satisfaction of costs, for recovery of which,-
- 11. Entry of Judgment.
- 12. Execution.

OF PROCEEDINGS IN AN ACTION.

may pursue Subsequently to Delivery of Plaintiff's Statement of Claim.)



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